DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 079 548 VT 020 795

AUTHOR	Lynn, James J.
TITLE	Preparing for Public Service Occupations: Social and Economic Services. Career Education Curriculum Guide.
INSTITUTION	California State Dept. of Education, Sacramento. Div. of Vocational Education.
SPONS AGENCY	Bureau of Adult, Vocational, and Technical Education (DHEW/OE), Washington, D.C. Curriculum Center for Occupational and Adult Education.
PUB DATE	Sep 73
GRANT	OEG-0-71-4780(357)
NOTE	124p.
EDRS PRICE	MF-$0.65 HC-$6.58
DESCRIPTORS	Behavior Development; *Career Education; Community Organizations; Course Content; Cross Cultural Training; *Curriculum Guides; *Government Employees; Group Behavior; Instructional Materials; Interaction Process Analysis; Interpersonal Competence; *Public Service Occupations; *Social Services; Welfare Services

ABSTRACT

This curriculum guide, one of a series developed to assist those involved in implementing career education programs concerned with public service occupations, contains the basic instructional material recommended for the area of social and economic services preparation. The units described are: (1) social service agencies and programs, (2) why people behave as they do, (3) how groups behave, (4) working with community organizations and groups, (5) individual assistance skills, (6) influences on people, and (7) cross-cultural skills. The guide offers suggestions for course content, teaching materials, and instructional objectives as well as teacher and student activities helpful in preparing individuals for social and economic service entry-level positions in public service occupations. Related documents are available in this issue as VT 020 793, VT 020 794, VT 020 796, and VT 020 856. (Author/MF)

FILMED FROM BEST AVAILABLE COPY

ED 079548

Preparing for Public Service Occupations

Social and Economic Services

Career Education Curriculum Guide

VT020795

ED 079548

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH,
EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF
EDUCATION
THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY

Preparing for Public Service Occupations

Social and Economic Services

by:

California State Department
of Education
Vocational Education Section
Program Planning Unit
Sacramento, California 95814

in accordance with:

U.S. Office of Education
Bureau of Adult Vocational
and Technical Education
Curriculum Center for Occupational
and Adult Education
Grant No. OEG-0-71-4780 (357)

September, 1973

The project presented or reported herein was performed pursuant to a Grant from the U.S. Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. However, the opinions expressed herein do not necessarily reflect the position of policy of the U.S. Office of Education, and no official endorsement by the U.S. Office of Education should be inferred.

Copyright. This Curriculum Guide is under development pursuant to Grant Number OEG-0-71-4780 (357) from the U.S. Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, and is protected under the U.S. Office of Education Copyright Program. No part of this publication may be used for instructional purposes or reproduced, stored in a retrieval system, or transmitted, in any form or by any means, electronic, mechanical, photocopying, recording, or otherwise, without prior written permission. Inquiries should be directed to the Public Service Occupational Curriculum Project; California State Department of Education, Division of Vocational Education, Program Planning Unit, 721 Capitol Mall, Sacramento, California 95814.

Discrimination Prohibited -- Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 states: "No person in the United States, shall, on the ground of race, color, or national origin, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any program or activity receiving federal financial assistance." Therefore, the Vocational and Technical Education program, like all other programs or activities receiving financial assistance from the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, must be operated in compliance with this law.

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS COPYRIGHTED MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

PUB SERVICE OCCUPATIONAL CURRICULUM PROJECT

TO ERIC AND ORGANIZATIONS OPERATING UNDER AGREEMENTS WITH THE NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION. FURTHER REPRODUCTION OUTSIDE THE ERIC SYSTEM REQUIRES PERMISSION OF THE COPYRIGHT OWNER."

FOREWORD

The Social and Economic Services Career Education Curriculum Guide is one of a series developed to assist those in implementing career education programs concerned with public service occupations. This guide consists of seven units and contains the basic instructional material recommended for the area of social and economic services preparation. It offers suggestions for course content, teaching materials, and instructional objectives, as well as teacher and student activities helpful in preparing individuals for social and economic service entry level positions in public service occupations. The subject matter is oriented toward teachers with minimal training and/or experience in public service educational preparation. Units are presented in a sequential order; however, each is designed to stand alone as a separate body of knowledge. Primary emphasis is on public service occupations preparation in the area of social and economic services; however, other individuals may also want to utilize the information contained in this guide. All of the information is "suggested," and should be adapted to meet local conditions and needs.

This guide was prepared by the California State Department of Education, Vocational Education Section, Program Planning Unit, which is under the direction of E. David Graf. The major responsibility for the coordination of this guide belongs to James J. Lynn, Curriculum Specialist, Public Service Occupations Curriculum Project. A wide range of suggestions and approaches to the subject were received and, wherever possible, incorporated into the final document. Since the resulting materials represent many opinions, no approval or endorsement of any institution, organization, agency, or person should be inferred.

Patrick J. Weagraff, Ed.D.
Project Director

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The completion of this career education guide depended upon the assistance, advice, and cooperation of many individuals. The California State Department of Education, Vocational Education Section, Program Planning Unit, wishes to acknowledge in particular the contribution of the following individuals:

Victor A. Backstrom
Public Service Occupations Teacher
Long Beach, California

John Bunten, Senior Program Officer
Bureau of Adult and Vocational-Technical Education
San Francisco, California

Dr. William E. Burns
Professor of Education
State University College at Buffalo
Buffalo, New York

Dr. Clark Dobson, Associate Secretary
Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development/NEA
Washington, D.C.

Dr. Ronald Detrick
Director of Career Education
San Diego Unified School District
San Diego, California

Dr. Nevin Frantz
Assistant Professor of Education
University of Georgia
Athens, Georgia

Irvin Gartner
Associate Director
Berkeley Executive Seminar Center
Berkeley, California

Elmer George, Executive Director
Georgia Municipal Association
Atlanta, Georgia

Alfred W. Koch
Curriculum Coordinator
Rawlins Public Schools
Rawlins, Wyoming

Andrew S. Korim
Public Service Specialist
American Association of Junior Colleges
Washington, D.C.

Fred Martinez, Consultant
Education for the Disadvantaged
California State Department of
Education
Sacramento, California

James B. Mayo, Coordinator
Fremont-Newark Regional
Occupational Program
Fremont, California

James J. McIlwrath, Consultant
Office of Program Evaluation
State Department of Education
Sacramento, California

Fred Miller, Chief
Public Service Institute
Department of Education
Harrisburg, Pennsylvania

Paul N. Peters, Manager
Career Education Task Force
State Department of Education
Sacramento, California

Mrs. Melba Williams
Georgia Municipal Association
Atlanta, Georgia

Dr. James Wykle
Education Program Specialist
U.S. Office of Education
Washington, D.C.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

More detailed lists of contents for each unit are included on the back of each colored divider sheet.

		Page
UNIT 1	SOCIAL SERVICE AGENCIES AND PROGRAMS	1
UNIT 2	WHY PEOPLE BEHAVE AS THEY DO	21
UNIT 3	HOW GROUPS BEHAVE	33
UNIT 4	WORKING WITH COMMUNITY ORGANIZATIONS AND GROUPS	47
UNIT 5	INDIVIDUAL ASSISTANCE SKILLS	65
UNIT 6	INFLUENCES ON PEOPLE	89
UNIT 7	CROSS-CULTURAL SKILLS	103
APPENDIX A	RESOURCE SUPPLIERS	119

Unit 1

SOCIAL SERVICE AGENCIES AND PROGRAMS

Here are the contents of the introductory unit to the Social-Service group. We suggest a careful reading of it before you read the text.

INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES 3

CONTENT 3

Introduction 3

Problems handled by Social-Service Agencies 4
- Types of Problems
- Interrelationship of Problems
- Understanding the Problem

Agency Goals and Functions 5
- Setting of Goals
- Changing Goals
- Long-Range Goals
- The Worker's Relationship to the Goals

Types of Agencies 7
- Civil Service
- Antipoverty Agencies
- Private or Voluntary Agencies

The Social Agency Staff 8
- The Aide and the Professional Staff
- Promotion in Social Agencies
  - Promotion by Training
  - Promotion by Merit or Experience
- Workers' Rights

The Quality of Agency Service 10
- Relevance of Agency Goals
- Adherence to Goals
- Quality of the Agency Staff
- Making Decisions
- Evaluating the Agency

Clients of Social Agencies 13
- Reactions of Clients to Problems
- Reactions of Clients to the Social-Service Worker
- Understanding the Clients' Attitudes and Behavior
  - The Client's Understanding of the Problem
  - The Client's Cultural Background
  - Worker-Client Mutual Understanding

The Social Services 16
- Receiving Help
- Offering Help

STUDENT LEARNING ACTIVITIES 17

TEACHER MANAGEMENT ACTIVITIES 18

RESOURCES 19

Unit 1

SOCIAL SERVICE AGENCIES AND PROGRAMS

INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

1. Ability to identify the types of problems handled in social-service agencies.
2. Ability to describe the various goals and functions of social-service agencies.
3. Ability to determine the training and promotional opportunities for entry level positions in social-service agencies.
4. Ability to integrate the needs of clients of social agencies with the services rendered by these agencies.
5. Ability to use an understanding of client's feelings and behavior to form attitudes of empathy and concern for them.

CONTENT

INTRODUCTION

Whether they work in a large modern office in which hundreds of people are employed, or in a dingy storefront office, nearly all social-service aides provide services or assist in their actual delivery. They usually work in a social agency, or in a social-services department of an institution.

The provision of social services is the response of these agencies or departments to the requests for help of people, usually called *clients*, who have certain problems that they feel they cannot solve or handle without assistance. Usually, clients do not pay for these services. Instead, the need for services has been recognized by the community and financed

primarily through taxes or (less frequently) through private donations.

Individuals preparing for work in the social and economic occupational group must recognize that social agencies primarily offer concrete or *bread-and-butter* services, such as money or housing, in addition to social aid in the form of talking, listening, or counseling. Actually, the two types of services (social and economic) are seldom entirely separate. For example, people often need considerable counseling when they apply for financial aid to a department of public assistance because they feel defeated, discouraged, or ashamed.

A social worker's primary task may be to help the clients prove their eligibility for assistance; typically, this means that they meet the various regulations spelling out the requirements. But the worker can also, by what he says, by the warmth he shows, and by his interest in the client as an individual, help him to feel better about himself and his problems.

PROBLEMS HANDLED BY SOCIAL-SERVICE AGENCIES

Types of problems for which clients seek social service aid are varied. Some of the most common handled by social agencies are problems of:

Housing, including apartment seeking, threatened or actual eviction, homelessness, overcrowding, high rent, and vermin or other unsanitary conditions;

Economics, including insufficient income, debts, garnishment, budgeting and money management;

Employment, including entry into job market; vocational or job training; employment barriers, such as physical handicaps, emotional illness, retardation, prison background, or drug abuse history;

Practical-personal relationships, including physical or mental health, physical handicaps, family planning, child care, school adjustment, out-of-wedlock pregnancy, police action, probation, or parole.

Interrelationships of Problems. Just knowing about housing, economic, or personal problems isn't enough. Social-service aides must try to understand the complex and interrelated patterns of factors that influence these problems. Troubles often seem to come together as a group of related problems. A breadwinner with a major problem of severe illness may lose his job, which will probably cause financial problems. He may, as a result of inability to go to work and support his

family, become severely discouraged and depressed. His marital relationship may suffer, and the stability of his home may be threatened. His children, upset by changes in their home life, may begin to have school problems, such as truancy or academic failure.

Problems such as these have to be considered in relation to such general social conditions as the availability of employment, racial and ethnic discrimination, or the quality of education. The lack of a high school diploma, for example, may or may not be a problem, depending on the availability and requirements of jobs in the community. In the past, there was much unskilled work available for persons with little education, but now greater skills and more education are required for many jobs.

Understanding problems also involves knowing how most people tend to handle the types of situations involved. The aide should be aware of what is considered *normal* (customary) behavior under the circumstances. For even if one respects the right of people to be different providing that they do no harm to others, their difference or deviance from the normal sometimes becomes a problem because of the way other people in the community regard such behavior. The behavior of certain groups of clients, such as newcomers from rural areas, may differ from that of the majority of city dwellers. It is important for social-service aides to recognize what behavior is considered normal among the group they serve. They should try to help clients handle problems that result from the differences between their customary behavior and that which the community expects.

AGENCY GOALS AND FUNCTIONS

Setting of Goals. Students preparing for a career in the social and economic services must have a clear understanding of the goals and functions of social-service agencies. Most social-service workers are employed in public social agencies which were established by local, state, or federal governments, probably as a result of some legislation. Although the staff has considerable leeway for making decisions concerning the everday administration of programs, the overall goals and policies are set by the laws that established the public agencies, and the employees may have to work toward goals that do not correspond with their own ideals.

Changing Goals. There may be and often are, distinct differences between the reasons for the agency's original establishment, and the goals that have been developed or set during

its years of service. For example, some settlement houses may have been founded to help European immigrants adjust to American life. Now that the former newcomers and their children have moved out of the neighborhood of original location, the settlement house is faced with the problem of either moving with them or serving new residents of the neighborhood. Because times have changed and the new groups have had different experiences before coming to the city, the settlement houses have to develop new goals if they are to adequately help a different clientele. Even if they move with the older groups, their goals would change because their former clients have changed. Such a situation can cause problems of serious nature. Sometimes an agency continues to hold onto its old aims when they are no longer suited to the problems in the community.

Long-range Goals. Agencies usually have long-range as well as immediate goals. For example, a public-assistance agency has as its immediate goal the provision of financial help for people who would otherwise be without income; but its long-range goal may be to help the clients become self-supporting. It is important to make this distinction. Sometimes these short- and long-term goals may be in conflict because allowances are so low and receiving them is so humiliating that people's health and self-respect suffer, giving the clients little incentive to seek work. As a result, they become less capable of the independence and self-support that is the goal of the agency. Most people in the social-work profession agree, however, that both long- and short-term goals can best be served by generous allowances offered in a spirit of respect and trust for the applicants.

Another example of the contrast between immediate and long-range goals is in the health field: an outpatient clinic may have the short-range goal of curing present illness, but the long-range purpose of preventing sickness.

The Worker's Relationship to the Goals. It is important for social-service workers to remember that one often becomes so busy doing his daily tasks that he forgets why he is doing them. This is especially likely in big organizations or bureaucracies where the work is divided among many persons, each of whom performs only part of the service to a client. Social-service employees must continually ask themselves why they are performing certain tasks, and what immediate and ultimate effect their efforts will have on their clients and the community. The employee is more likely to perform his everyday tasks with enthusiasm and dedication if he is aware of the reasons for doing them, than if they become routine chores.

TYPES OF AGENCIES

Civil Service. In a public agency a voluntary group of citizens may serve as an advisory board, but the day-to-day work is done by employees of city, county, state, or federal governments, whose employment is regulated by civil service. For each type of job in these agencies, persons are usually required to have certain *objective* qualifications, based on education and experience, rather than being appointed on the basis of *who they know*. Usually, they have to pass written examinations, to meet qualifications set by the local, state, or federal civil service commission, which has determined that these qualifications are necessary to perform a certain job.

One can understand how the qualities of social-service workers (who should, above all, be warm, friendly people, interested in others) would be hard to determine by such methods. It is also clear that the introduction of new workers, such as aides (who may have less formal education and job experience than others who formerly did their jobs), might be difficult to accomplish under civil service regulations. Of course, civil service was begun to assure fair-employment practices in government services, and to prevent jobs from being awarded on the basis of politcal friendship. But sometimes the qualifications that were set up for certain jobs have become fixed and unrelated to changing staff needs.

The rating and promotion of civil-service workers are usually conducted on the basis of the aforementioned objective criteria. Unfortunately, these sometimes exclude traits that are hard to measure, such as warmth, concern for clients, and assertiveness on behalf of clients. Civil-service examinations tend to emphasize factors that are easier to determine by tests, such as knowledge of rules and regulations, and correct use of agency forms.

Antipoverty Agencies. The recent increased awareness of the needs of the poor and of their right to have a voice in our society has led to extensive antipoverty legislation and to new agencies established with money granted under these laws. Most funds have been granted by the federal government to newly formed local groups rather than to established public or voluntary agencies. Often there is a requirement that the state and local governments contribute some financial or other support, but they, too, have often granted money directly to the new agencies rather than setting up new public agencies in the city or town. These new agencies are often operated under regulations other than those of civil service. Much of their initial flexibility was related to their newness, but, in some cases, they have already begun to become rigid and divorced from the clients and problems for which they were intended. Sometimes another criticism has been made about these

agencies - that their lack of strict regulations has led to an unprofessional approach to services.

Voluntary or Private Agencies. Public service agencies are not always run by the government. Some nonprofit agencies are run by voluntary or private citizen groups, which were created as a result of the concern of private citizens about certain social problems. Often they were formed to help solve problems that could not be met by public social welfare agencies.

Many of these voluntary agencies came into existence before the public agencies. Sometimes, their focus was changed when the government assumed major responsibility for the problems they had been designed to meet. While they have at least some support from private contributions, most also receive some government funds. Private agencies must meet public standards in programs for which they get public money, but the voluntary agencies are free to choose whom they want to serve and have greater flexibility in hiring staff. Private agencies do not use the civil service system. This leeway can mean that the private agencies are able to help some persons who would otherwise not be served, but it can also mean that these agencies are able to ignore those they do not wish to serve.

THE SOCIAL AGENCY STAFF

The quality of services offered by an agency depends to a great extent on the quality of its staff. Students should become aware of the qualifications and the assignments of the workers in social-service agencies. They should become familiar with the tasks and required training, education, and experience of supervisory staff, nonsupervisory professional workers, and social-service aides, as well as other kinds of personnel employed in social agencies.

The Aide and the Professional Staff. Aides usually have less formal education and often less job experience in a social agency than other personnel involved in offering services. For this reason, they may have certain problems in working with more highly trained staff.

His initial training, combined with that secured while on the job, will help the aide to become familiar with the social-service professions, as well as with his own particular assignment. Since he will be doing some tasks that others with more education have done in the past, there may be a feeling that the aide is less qualified than his predecessors were to accomplish the required tasks. The fact that some aides are able to form a cordial relationship with clients more easily than some professionals may also lead these professionals to resent some aides.

Some staff members in other agencies who are unfamiliar with the services aides can perform may think the new aides know less than they do. Some staff members may be unwilling to work with aides on a case or feel uneasy about doing so. They may fail to recognize the aide's natural talents for the job, the training he has had on the job, and the supervision he is getting. It is the responsibility of the agency to make the status and abilities of the aides clear to workers in other agencies. Aides should feel free to ask their supervisor to pave the way for smooth working relationships with other agencies if this type of trouble exists. It is important for the student to be prepared for the possibility that there will be problems such as those mentioned, and to consider in advance how he will handle them.

One of the most important things for aides (and for all other social-service workers) is to know what the employee can and cannot do. An individual should know what he himself is qualified to do, and those items he must refer to others who have different skills, knowledge, or education. One basis of a good working relationship between professional and aide is mutual help. Aides can share with professionals their knowledge of the neighborhood and the client group, and professionals can share their knowledge and skills with aides.

Promotion in Social Agencies. People preparing to work in the social and economic group need to be aware of promotional opportunities in their occupational group, and to know how they can advance on the job.

Promotion by Training. One way to become a better worker and to get ahead is to get additional training. This can be accomplished either on the job (this is usually called *inservice training*) or at a vocational school, training institute, community college, or university.

In public agencies operated under laws that provide for staff improvement, tuition and living allowances may be offered for study outside the agency. It is to the benefit of the agency and to the general quality of social-services in the community when agencies assume responsibility for staff development and continuing education. It is also important that the aide should apply for any training and educational opportunities for which he could qualify.

Promotion by Merit or Experience. High-quality performance and/or length of time on the job may also be reasons for a promotion or a raise. In many instances, a combination of experience and education will count toward job promotion.

When the employee keeps the same job but gets more money for it, his changed status is usually called an *increment*.

Increments are sometimes awarded on the basis of quality of performance; at other times, all the workers in a particular job or category of employment get a raise. Many public service employees receive yearly increments or step increases in their salary.

Workers' Rights. As it is important to know how one can advance himself in the same job, so also the employee should acquaint himself with knowledge of other rights, or how to protect himself against unfair treatment (such as unfair evaluations of one's performance), as well as how to make use of this knowledge.

Workers' rights and opportunities are often obtained and protected by organized groups, such as unions, organizations of social-service workers (similar to professional associations), or nonunion staff organizations in a single agency.

THE QUALITY OF AGENCY SERVICES

Since social-service workers have a commitment (to work for the welfare of people) that goes beyond their loyalty to a job in any particular social agency, it is important for them to be able to tell when their agency or another agency is doing a good job. To evaluate a social agency, it is necessary to think about the goals themselves, as well as how they are being carried out, which always involves the quality of staff.

Relevance of Goals. Are the goals of an agency related to people's needs, or have they been forgotten in the hustle and bustle of doing business?

- Are people so busy protecting property in the public housing program that they forget that buildings were constructed for people to live in?
- Have public servants provided grass for children only to spend all their energy keeping children off it?
- Do you feel that even if the goals of the agency were accomplished, the important needs of people would not be met? For example, is the agency concerned primarily with children's recreation in settlement programs when there is a greater need to help them make better use of schooling through tutorial programs, field trips, and the like?

Adherence to Goals. Often the goals of an agency are sound, but the way services are performed prevents their achievement.

For example, few whose concern is for poor people could quarrel that it is good to relieve financial need. But when the amount of money granted is so low that recipients are still very needy, then the agency is not achieving its goals. Or, if allowances are fairly adequate, but people can only get them if they have lived in the city or state a certain period of years, then many needy people are not being helped. Unfortunately, people are no less needy because they have lived in a town only a few months.

The long-range goal of public assistance - the creation of self-reliance - may not be achieved when every penny of earnings is deducted from the public-assistance grant, and there is consequently no financial incentive to work. Or self-respect, an important ingredient in creating independence, may not be developed when the means test is used to determine eligibility. This test can be a humiliating blow to self-esteem.

Accountability to Public. One difficult thing about working in a public agency or one supported by public funds, such as antipoverty agencies, is that it is somewhat like working in a goldfish bowl. The public quite correctly feels it has a right to watch over all programs and to hold the agency and the staff accountable for them. In addition, legislators, newspaper reporters, and members of citizen groups frequently check to see that public agencies are doing what the law says they should. Sometimes these groups are not necessarily looking after the interests of the clients, but are, in fact, protecting their own monetary interests, raising such questions as "Why do we have to pay high taxes to support welfare chiselers?"

Social-service agencies and their employees should be sensitive to the demands of the community they serve. They should try to be objective and see all sides. One can easily understand the conflict between professionals, who think they know what clients need; the taxpayers, who may not know in detail the reasons for social services; and the clients themselves, who may feel they know best what they need and how they should be helped. The new antipoverty agencies have tried to respond more to the needs of the poorer clients and to the problems as they are seen by the clients.

Quality of the Agency Staff. In thinking about agency staff, it is important to consider whether they are qualified to do the jobs they are assigned:

- Do agency requirements permit them to do their job?
- Is the task of the aide in the public-housing program that of a policeman, or is he to help create a decent atmosphere for living?

It may be that people meet all the agency requirements of education and experience, but still lack that concern for clients which is essential in any social service job. Consider a local social-service agency in the community:

- Does the agency settle for staff that fall short of the standards it sets?
- Are there obvious lacks, such as workers' inability to speak the clients' language, or total unfamiliarity with the background and way of life of the clientele?
- Does the agency employ people from the neighborhood served, or who are members of the same ethnic group as the clients?
- If such persons are hired, are they used in showcase fashion, or do they actually help the agency to understand the clientele better and to be more aware of their problems?
- Do staff, no matter how well qualified, have enough time to serve clients adequately?

Making Decisions. One important question to ask about any social-service agency is how decisions are made. The professional staff, who have the training and experience to be able to contribute to policy- and program-planning, should have a role in making decisions. Questions to consider include:

- Are those workers directly involved with clients able to affect policy, or is everything decided by the administrative staff or persons further removed from service, such as a lay advisory group?
- Is the board influenced by the opinions of staff at all levels?

An important goal of social welfare is to increase the independence and self-respect of people; for this reason, many now consider it to be important that clients have a voice in agency affairs. If there is truly a belief in people's right to self-determination and in their worth, then it must also be understood that clients' views of what agencies should do are very important. It is now very generally agreed that people from the neighborhood and the client group should be on the advisory or policy-making board of the agency.

- What rights do clients have to protest or appeal agency decisions, such as the refusal of a housing authority to rent them an apartment, or a welfare department's decision to deny them financial aid or withdraw homemaking service?

- Is there an opportunity to question policy as well as the way it is interpreted? For example, if it is the agency's policy to deny housing to fatherless families, then it is this policy, rather than the refusal to house them, that a family headed by a female might want to appeal.

- Does the agency let clients know of their right to appeal decisions, or is this a right in name only?

Evaluating the Agency. Considering a particular local agency, try to answer the following important questions about any social agency:

- If it met its *goals*, would this agency be helping to meet the important needs of community residents? Which residents, the most needy or those better off?

- Do its *programs* come near to achieving its goals?

- What *say* do *clients* and *staff* (at various levels of authority) have in making its policies and programs, in appealing its decisions?

- Are *staff qualifications* and the *staff themselves* suitable for carrying out the goals and the program of the agency?

- Are there *aides* or *neighborhood workers* on the staff, and is their unique knowledge of the clients and their problems being tapped?

CLIENTS OF SOCIAL-SERVICE AGENCIES

Many clients of social-service agencies are disadvantaged. That is, they may lack income, have inadequate housing, and have serious problems in getting along with others. And, as a result of their community status, they often do not command respect from other members of the community, or (which is equally important) from themselves. Sometimes these individuals, and others, forget that the existence of their problems does not imply the lack of strengths. In fact, many disadvantaged clients are able to get by or to live with troubles which overwhelm many more fortunate people.

Reactions of Clients to Problems. It is the purpose of a social-service agency to reduce or lessen the disadvantages of its clients. For example, they offer cash, or (in some areas) food stamps when there is no money; or decent housing, when it is dilapidated.

The characteristics of clients (such as their racial or ethnic groups, their birth places and their education) influence not only the problems for which they need help, but affect their ability to use the help social agencies offer. A Negro client may be in need of financial help for many reasons related to his race, such as his birthplace in a rural area where schools, particularly for Negroes, were substandard, and where medical services were inadequate. As a Negro, even allowing for the fact that he is undereducated, he may have been discriminated against in the scramble for unskilled work. The poor housing to which he is often limited by his income and his race may affect his spirit or morale.

Reactions of Clients to the Social-Service Worker. Some of these conditions may even affect his ability to use help. This is particularly true if the social worker he sees is white, and he has been accustomed to hostile treatment by whites, even in social agencies. His suspicion may lead him to doubt the sincerity of the friendship, advice, or counsel which the worker offers, no matter how unprejudiced the worker is.

Indeed, it is important for the new social-service aide to recognize that the first reactions of clients to him are sometimes based on what the aide symbolizes, rather than what he is. The aide must, by his concern, willingness to help, and his skill, help his clients to overcome this resistance.

But, at the same time, it is important not to be insulted when clients are angry or unfriendly to social-service workers. They may expect that the aide will treat them as others have treated them in the past. The way individuals respond to others is based on their past experiences, and many social-service clients have had more than their share of bitter experiences.

Understanding the Clients' Attitudes and Behavior. The conditions or characteristics mentioned above all affect people, but they by no means mean the same thing to everyone. One family with low income may have more spirit, get along better with others and among themselves, and strive harder than another poor family. The reasons for this are complex; perhaps it is because they have been less poor for a shorter period of time, or for some other reason.

The Client's Understanding of the Problem. One of the most important characteristics of the social worker's way of viewing and helping people is the determination to understand the *meaning* that a circumstance, a behavior, or a problem has for the individual. What may seem to be bad housing to one client may seem adequate to another, such as a person who has lived in the worst slums of San Juan. It would be wrong to conclude

that the person from San Juan lacked ambition or motivation to get ahead - he has already shown enough of that when he left his home to come to the mainland, and he may have already considerably bettered himself in relation to what he had before.

The Client's Cultural Background. The worker must also be careful not to conclude that the way of life of poor persons, or persons who belong to minority groups, is necessarily different from those who are better off, and who belong to the majority race or ethnic groups. Some of their attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors, or what is called *culture*, may be different from those of the majority of people. On the other hand, other attitudes may be quite similar to those of the majority.

There will also be great differences in beliefs, behaviors, and attitudes among people who have common social characteristics. Most of the poor have seen the way people live on TV or in the ads. This middle-class life style is often quite different from their own. In fact, it is sometimes the difference between (on the one hand) what they want and others have, and (on the other hand) what they know they can get, that makes some bitter, hopeless, and down-and-out, with resulting frustration and lowered self-image.

Worker-Client Mutual Understanding. It is important to keep in mind some of the ways that people feel, and the results on their lives of not having what they consider to be enough money; of suffering racial discrimination; or of living in crowded and unsanitary housing. Understanding these feelings will give the aide or social worker advance clues as to what the client is enduring. Some notion of how conditions affect people may help aides to probe or to dig deeper, and thus to be aware of the client's true feelings, for he cannot be expected to reveal them immediately to a stranger.

Above all, social-service employees must strive for *empathy* in their work with clients. This means that aides should try to put themselves in their client's place. Aides should not feel sorry for them, but rather try to understand what it would feel like to be in their shoes. Part of developing empathy is avoiding the tendency to assume that the aide *knows* how *anybody* would feel about being poor or being a Negro. No one can tell exactly how someone else feels, but an aide can try to find out what it feels like to the person he is trying to help. He must not let the way he himself would feel get in the way of learning how the client feels about his problems.

THE SOCIAL SERVICES

Receiving Help. Being on the receiving end of a relationship is a position common to social-service clients. Although it is the goal of the social agency to serve its clients, the client's dependence on aides and social workers is sometimes a problem in itself. If one has no money, then he must ask for public assistance in order to eat; but having to depend on a social agency for resources that most people get by themselves or from their family or close friends, is hard and sometimes humiliating. Different cultural beliefs may make it difficult to accept help.

Everyone is, to a certain extent dependent on circumstances beyond his control. A person's health sometimes fails, no matter how well he cares for himself; employment may not be available at a certain time or place; one's family may have emotional, mental, or physical problems. Indirectly, most people are influenced by forces outside themselves. For children to be dependent on their parents is natural; but for adults to be directly dependent on social agencies for the necessities of life, rather than to be dependent upon themselves or others with whom they have a close personal relationship, is likely to affect their self-esteem. Since the recipients of welfare services are often looked down on by the community, it is hard for them to feel comfortable about their dependence, even if they recognize that their need is not their fault. It is certainly a fact that many clients have less control over their lives than most people do, and that they are likely to feel weak and powerless.

Offering Help. To offer social services in such a way as to help people maintain their dignity is one of the social-service employee's most difficult and important tasks. To begin with, the worker must really believe in an individual's *right* to these services. Like other public service employees, his job is to *serve* his clients.

A knowledge of the development of these services tells us that social conditions and circumstances, rather than the individual, are largely responsible for the needs of people. It is hard in this society not to judge a man's worth by his pocketbook, but unless one respects his clients for their strengths, and unless one realizes that all people have dignity no matter how much life has worn them down, one really cannot aid them. For example, a middle-aged man who has supported his family all of his life and suddenly becomes too ill to work, can be helped to respect his past assumption of responsibilities, and to understand the ways in which he can continue to function as father and husband, if not breadwinner. If one is honest with himself, he will know how much luck, other persons, and general social conditions account for his own

independence. The aide must realize that most people have been dependent in one way or another at some time in their lives.

In addition to offering help with respect and understanding for the client, there are ways of reducing his actual dependence on outside forces.

Organizations of clients and their supporters protect or assert the rights of clients. There are also organizations of welfare recipients, tenant councils, and local action groups that can help clients know their rights. Clients' participation on the advisory boards of social agencies is also a way of increasing their participation in the social-service activities. While it may not necessarily mean that clients have any more influence over the services - over eligibility regulations, levels of assistance, etc. - the presence in the agency at all staff levels of persons from their own income, racial, ethnic, or neighborhood group may reduce their feelings of being dependent on impersonal outsiders.

Awareness of the feelings that clients might have as a result of depending so greatly on outsiders may help social workers to understand behaviors that would otherwise seem mysterious. For example, a client may act as if he does not need the help a particular agency offers even when the aide knows he desperately requires it, or he may be resentful rather than grateful. He may behave this way because he thinks more gracious behavior would show how helpless he is. Acting as if he does not need help may be his way of denying to himself or simply to others how desperate he is. These actions are his way of holding on to his pride.

Cultural differences may account for part of his behavior. Sometimes his behavior will be carried to the extreme of refusing to ask for help - in which case one of the aide's tasks is to help him realize that it is a strength to seek help for himself and his family.

A worker should also realize that overly gracious behavior on the part of a client may be an attempt to hide his true feelings of resentment and embarrassment over dependence. With this knowledge of the client's feelings and behavior patterns, he can develop an attitude of empathy and concern for the client which will make the student a more effective employee in the social and economic occupational group.

STUDENT LEARNING ACTIVITIES

- Determine the short- and long-range goals of a local social-service agency in your community.
- Debate the following statement: *The primary goal of a social-service agency is to make every person fully independent.*

- Go to a local social-service agency in your community and obtain answers to these questions:

  1. Was the agency established by federal, state, or local law? If not by any of the above, how was it established?
  2. What are the sources of funds for this agency? Public, private, or combination of both?
  3. How are clients selected?
  4. How do the sources, availability of funds, and legislation, if any, affect the services of this agency?

- View and discuss films on social-service agencies, such as: *Social Work, What's the Answer to Slums,* or *The Welfare Revolt.*

- Evaluate a local social-service agency in your community in these areas:

  1. Are goals related to needs?
  2. Do programs reach goals?
  3. What say do clients and staff have in the agency?
  4. What are the educational and experience qualifications for the social-service staff?
  5. How are aides and neighborhood workers utilized?

- Write a short essay on the relationships between the needs of clients and the services rendered by employees in social-service agencies.

- List the social characteristics of the clientele at a local social-service agency. Include such factors as:

Income	Employment status
Race	Family composition
Ethnic group	Age
Education	Health
Housing	Birthplace

TEACHER MANAGEMENT ACTIVITIES

- Have the students identify the types of problems people handle in social-service agencies.

- Divide the class into small groups, and have them discuss the short- and long-range goals of various social-service agencies in your community.

- Establish teams to debate such statements as: *The primary goal of a social-service agency is to make every person fully independent.*

- Arrange to have a person or persons available at a local social-service agency to talk to students about agency operations.

- Show such films on social services as: *Social Worker, What's the Answer to Slums,* or *The Welfare Revolt.* Encourage class discussion afterwards.

- Assign an essay on the relationships between the needs of clients and the services rendered by employees in social-service agencies.

- Have the students identify the social characteristics of the clientele at a local social-service agency.

RESOURCES

Poorhouse State: The American Way of Life on Public Assistance, Richard M. Elman, Delta Bell (Dell Publishing Co.),1968.

Toward Social Welfare: An Analysis of Programs and Proposals Attacking Poverty, Insecurity, and Inequality of Opportunity, C. Wilcox, Irwin-Dorsey, 1969.

The Welfare Revolt (Movie, 16mm, reel, rental), Indiana University A-V Center, 1970.

Using Teams to Deliver Social Services (Manpower Monograph No. 1), Robert L. Baker and Thomas L. Briggs, Syracuse University Press, 1960.

Social Worker (Film, color, 17 minutes, purchase), Universal Education Visual Arts, 1967.

Nonprofessionals in the Human Services, C. Grosser, et. al., Jossey-Bass, Inc., 1969.

Status: Achievement and Social Values, American Education Publication, 1971.

What's The Answer to Slums (Film, 15 minutes, color, rental), Institutional Cinema, 1969.

Diary of a Harlem Family (Movie, 16mm, reel, rental), Indiana University A-V Center, 1970.

Unit 2

WHY PEOPLE BEHAVE AS THEY DO

Here are the contents of Unit 2 of the Social-Services group. We suggest a careful reading of it before you read the text.

INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES 23

CONTENT 23

Introduction 23
- Need to Understand Behavior
- What is Behavior?
- Evaluating Personal Values
- Learning Behavior Patterns

Behavioral Types 25
- General Types of Behavior
- Feelings as Related to Behavior

Human Behavior Influencing our Lives 26
- Behavior Influencing our Viewpoints of Others
- Understanding Human Behavior
- Prejudiced (Learned) Behavior Patterns

Aspects of Behavior Within Social-Service Occupations 28
- Confidentiality
- Behavior on and off the Job
- Joining the Establishment

STUDENT LEARNING ACTIVITIES 29

TEACHER MANAGEMENT ACTIVITIES 29

RESOURCES 30

Unit 2

WHY PEOPLE BEHAVE AS THEY DO

INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

1. Ability to recognize that behavior is related to feelings.
2. Ability to understand and accept the feelings of others without undue prejudice or personal bias.
3. Ability to appreciate the relationships between the way human behavior is judged and the way the basic nature of man is perceived.
4. Ability to use oneself more effectively in working with people.
5. Ability to use the knowledge of human behavior to work with people more comfortably both on and off the job.
6. Ability to recognize the value of understanding human behavior to work toward personal happiness.
7. Ability to become more aware of patterns of behavior in working with co-workers or clients, in order to better understand and respond to problems that arise.

CONTENT

INTRODUCTION

Need to Understand Behavior. The field of public service requires the ability to work with many different individuals, including the general public. For the worker in public service to be most effective, he must be able to understand the behavior of others, as well as his own behavior. His relationships with co-workers, friends, instructors, and the

public in general depend on his understanding of patterns of behavior, and on his ability to respond to problems as they arise.

The student should gain an understanding of the feelings which he has about himself and for others. Increasing his sensitivity to emotions of embarrassment, anxiety, dependence, helplessness, or fear, will better enable the student to work with the public.

What is Behavior? Behavior is what people do. It is a process of adaptation to one's environment, and is closely related to an individual's perceptions of the rewards resulting from his actions, as compared to the costs thereof. This perception is in turn influenced by the personal needs, desires, aspirations, and wants experienced by a person, and which affect value judgments concerning his behavior. The identification of personal values can assist teachers and students to deal more rationally with value issues as they relate to human behavior.

Evaluating Personal Values. One technique for examining personal values is the *Value Survey* developed by the social psychologist Milton Rokeach. (See Resources.) This is a simple method for measuring value priorities. The instrument contains 18 terminal values, including such goals as *a sense of accomplishment, family security,* and *true friendship;* and such instrumental values as *honesty, imagination,* and *self-control.* The students are asked to rank each set of values to form a value system, or an arrangement of values in order of importance to him.

Individual teachers may also find the survey proves a valuable personal experience. Effective teachers recognize the difference between their own value positions and those of students.

Instead of trying to indoctrinate students with a particular set of values, students should be encouraged to own and act upon their identified personal values.

Learning Behavior Patterns. Students are more enthusiastic today in their participation in programs that deal directly with feelings and attitudes and in discussion groups that force confrontation of personal value positions. Based upon such activities, an appreciation of human behavior pattern can be fostered in the students. Students can be better prepared for work in Social Service if they can be helped to develop an attitude that will enable them to understand human behavior, rather than to judge it. They must learn to understand what *causes* behavior, as opposed to the common notion

that deviant or antisocial behavior springs from fundamental *badness* and *orneriness*.

Since many students have themselves come into conflict with authority in school, learning more about their own personality and the reason for their behavior will insure that they will ultimately revise their self concepts to include greater self acceptance, which is one of the goals of the whole education program.

BEHAVIORAL TYPES

General Types of Behavior. Behavior patterns can begin to be understood by assuming that there are four basic types of behavioral processes:

- *Conditioned responses* - behavior resulting from fixed operation or habits, producing predictable responses;
- *Motor processes* - behavior developed through muscular coordination for countless non-skilled body movements, such as using precision, grace, or speed in accomplishing the behavior;
- *Verbal processes* - using a symbol system (language); for example, to communicate thoughts and feelings;
- *Conceptual-affective processes* - acquiring concepts and values through direct experience, and organizing them meaningfully to serve the individual's motives.

Feelings as Related to Behavior. Feelings have to do with the emotional side of man, with his sentiments, passions, and susceptibilities. The emotional nature of man is one of the most complex aspects of human behavior. There are three main aspects of this response:

- *Conscious experience* - the feeling of being happy, anxious, or afraid. These conscious aspects of emotion are of prime importance in our importance in our personal and social adjustment;
- *Physical response* - the physiological reaction to a strong feeling, such as fear or rage. This biological response involves coordinated muscular, chemical, glandular, and neural activities throughout the body;
- *Feelings as motives for behavior* - a life without *emotion* would literally be a life without *motion*. Feelings and emotion are directly related to behavior. A feeling is a reaction to a symbol or external stimulus, and is aroused within the individual in direct relation to the significance of the situation to him.

HUMAN BEHAVIOR INFLUENCING OUR LIVES

Behavior Influencing our Viewpoints of Others. Each of us, whether we realize it or not, forms a way of looking at man in general - a kind of philosophical viewpoint on human nature. This viewpoint has been determined by our personal value system and attitudes towards ourselves and others; value judgments which are tempered by our own way of accepting the central essence of man.

Let us now examine some different ways of looking at the basic nature of man:

- *Man is basically good* - This is an optimistic way of looking at man. It implies that his basic nature is to always to do good.
- *Man is basically evil* - This is the pessimistic viewpoint of man. Here man's basic nature is considered to be evil or *sinful*, and man must constantly struggle to overcome his evil nature. Certain religious overtones may play a role in this belief.
- *Man is neither basically good or evil, but a product of his heredity and training* - This viewpoint claims that man's behavior is entirely the result of heredity and environment working together to direct behavior and development.
- *Man is a combination of two or more of the above viewpoints* - for example, some social scientist believe that man is primarily a product of biological and environmental conditions, and that he also is basically good, or strives to do good deeds. The implication of believing in one of these viewpoints should be explored. As an example, say a teacher's aide thought that all humans were basically evil. How do you feel her way of looking at human behavior would effect the way in which she would interact with her students?

Understanding Behavior Patterns. In order to work toward personal happiness, and become more effective both on and off the job, the student must be helped to develop attitudes that will enable him to see the relationships between feelings and behavior. Some of the qualities involved in understanding behavior patterns are:

- *Sensitivity* - acceptance and awareness of the different ways people have of expressing their feelings - a necessity for students, particularly. Human behavior is a product of many experiences in different people.
- *Rapport* - getting along with others. Establishing a good rapport with co-workers will make work more pleasant and satisfying. There are several ways you can establish a good relationship with others:

Knowing what you are able to offer, and being able to express this clearly;

Listening actively to what is being said, and observing the outward feelings that accompany what is said;

Communicating the conviction that people can help themselves by improving their attitudes as well as deeds.

° *Acceptance* - the positive and active understanding of other's feelings; not a blind acceptance of everything someone does, but an awareness and belief that each person has a right to his own opinions.

° *Prejudice* - an emotionally toned prejudgment for or against a person, group of persons, or situations; as often displayed, an unfavorable and often hostile attitude toward the members of a different ethnic group or race. A public-service employee must constantly strive to wipe out all prejudice whenever and wherever it is apparent. The United States has been known as a *melting pot* of various national and racial groups, and as a country of religious and political freedom. Class distinctions are discouraged, however, in spite of legislation to prevent discrimination - it is a fact of life for many groups in America.

Prejudiced (Learned) Behavior Patterns. The fact that a particular form of prejudice, say Anti-Semitism, does *not* exist in all parts of the world suggests that prejudice is learned behavior. Very young children are usually completely unaware of differences of race or nationality. As the child grows up, however, he learns most of his prejudices through associations with prejudiced people. Any expression of a personal bias by a teacher will influence the attitudes of his or her students. On the other hand, education can certainly help form positive attitudes of acceptance towards people of different cultural or ethnic backgrounds. Prejudicial attitudes can take many forms:

° Racial or ethnic,
° Sexual stereotype,
° Religious,
° Job or housing discrimination,
° Educational level,
° Personal traits (weight, clothing, speech).

The issue in dealing with prejudice is based on decisions which are influenced by one's own perceptions, rather than on objective fact. Knowledge about other people or groups is often the first step in eliminating stereotyped ways of thinking, since there is a close relationship between intolerance and ignorance. Prolonged contact between different individuals or groups of people usually reduces prejudicial attitudes. This is why working in the field of public service, which is

itself a melting pot of persons from all areas of our society, is a positive step in elimination of irrational prejudice. Students might want to explore different expressions of prejudice in the field of social service.

As an example: a social-service aide believes that all Mexican-Americans are lazy and don't want to work. This worker is responsible for determining financial aid qualifications for individuals - what implications are there in providing fair service to all people, considering this aide's negative prejudicial attitude toward Mexican-Americans?

ASPECTS OF BEHAVIOR WITHIN SOCIAL-SERVICE OCCUPATIONS

There are certain kinds of behavior (confidentiality, actions on and off the job, and joining the establishment) of particular importance for workers in the field of social service:

Confidentiality. In working with the public it is very important to project an image of trust and confidence, and to assure people that confidential information will remain so.

Behavior on and off the job. Because of the nature of public service, one is constantly in the *public eye*. To the average citizen, the city employee represents his city, the state employee his state, etc. It is important, therefore, to consider:

- What effect will your after-hours activities have on your employment?
- What is discretion, and how is it used?
- What are the limitations on personal freedom - what responsibilities does freedom carry?
- What are the effects of possible *after-hours* demands on the behavior of persons working in public service?

Joining the Establishment.- Human behavior should be discussed in terms of what it means to the trainee himself, and what the implications of his actions are on the community, the people he deals with, and his employer. Does the trainee owe his allegiance to his employer or to his friends in the community?

The trainee is often in a bind. Part of his unique value lies in his relationships to, and knowledge of, the local population; part of his value comes from being a worker in public services. He is, in a sense, walking a tight rope between

the *establishment* and his friends and neighbors. What happens to his allegiance?

The young individual entering public service is a person in transition. Specific and unique problems accompany this role. The teacher and students need to define these special problems and determine alternate ways of handling them.

STUDENT LEARNING ACTIVITIES

- List four examples of people's feelings about asking for or receiving help from a social-service employee.
- Write a brief overview of the complexities of human behavior. Include some personal experiences.
- In small-group discussion period, describe a personal value belief, include how you feel it affects your behavior.
- As a member of a small group, choose a way of looking at human behavior; for example: man is good, evil, neutral, or a combination of the three; and debate your viewpoint with different groups.
- Listen to experts in human behavior (such as counselors and psychologists) and be prepared to discuss main concepts of their fields.
- Discuss the natures and causes of prejudice and try to come up with solutions.
- Identify several demands on employees who work in social service which might not be made on employees in other fields.
- Write a short essay, and describe why understanding of human behavior will help to make a person a better public servant, both on and off the job.
- Through some form of part-time work experience in social service, use the knowledge and attitudes developed in this unit on behavior to understand people effectively as judged by your supervisor.

TEACHER MANAGEMENT ACTIVITIES

- Encourage students to discuss the questions and points presented; for example, the relationship of feelings to behavior.
- Have the class, in small groups, debate various ways of looking at human behavior (i.e., man is good, evil, neutral, or a combination of the three).

- Utilize local counselors or psychologists as resource persons to discuss human behavior.

- Show audio-visual programs on selected topics of behavior *(Seeds of Hate, An Examination of Prejudice)*, and have students discuss their attitudes and feelings on the topic.

- Using a role-play situation, have the students simulate some of the privileges and frustrations of different positions in social service.

- Plan writing activities to show how understanding human behavior can help trainees work in social-service more effectively.

- Bring social-service workers into class to discuss the relationship between behavior and getting along, on-and-off the job.

- If possible, arrange for some students to gain work experience in public service. Obtain feedback from the trainees' supervisors, and the trainees, on how well they are using their knowledge of behavior at work.

RESOURCES

Human Behavior, Bernard Berelson & Gary A. Steiner, shorter ed., Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc., 1967.

Value Survey, Milton Rokeach: Halgren Tests, 873 Persimmon Avenue, Sunnyvale, CA, 1967.

Psychology from the Standpoint of a Behaviorist, J. B. Watson, 2nd. Ed., J.B. Lippincott Company, 1924.

Psychology--The Study of Behavior, Paul Swartz, text ed., Teachers Guide, Van Nostrand Reinhold Co., 1969.

Work and Human Behavior, Walter S. Neff, Atherton Press, 1968.

Brain and Behavior (Movie, 16mm, reel, purchase), Indiana University A-V Center, 1970.

Autobiography of Malcolm X, Alex Haley: Grove Press, 1965

"It's the Same, But It's Different," Robert Coles, Daedalas Periodical, Fall, 1965.

Manchild in the Promised Land, Claude Brown, Macmillan Co., 1965.

Theories of Personality, Calvin S. Hall and Gardner Lindzey, 2nd Edition, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1970.

Seeds of Hate; an Examination of Prejudice (Sound Filmstrip-Purchase), Warren Schloat Productions, 1972.

The Cool World, Warren Miller, Fawcett Publications, 1965.

Adolescent Girl in Conflict, Gisela Kanopka: Prentice-Hall, 1966.

Modern Public Administration, Felix A. Nigro, Harper & Row, 1965.

Unit 3

HOW GROUPS BEHAVE

Here are the contents of Unit 3 of the Social-Services group. We suggest a careful reading of it before you read the text.

INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES 35

CONTENT 35

Introduction 35

Groups 36
- Types
- Group Role Playing
- Group Solidarity
- Group Membership
- Conformity with Group Values
- Group Communications
- Effect of Friendships on Group Communications

Group Leadership 40
- Essentials of Leadership
- Functions of Leaders
- Styles of Leadership
  - Authoritarian
  - Democratic
  - Laissez-faire
- Group Atmospheres Created by Leadership Styles
- Leadership Training

STUDENT LEARNING ACTIVITIES 42

TEACHER MANAGEMENT ACTIVITIES 43

RESOURCES 44

Unit 3

HOW GROUPS BEHAVE

INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

1. Ability to understand such group behavior as group communications, friendship relations, and leadership-followship patterns.
2. Ability to differentiate between membership groups and reference groups.
3. Ability to recognize both impediments and contributions to group dynamics.
4. Ability to understand and describe the concept of leadership as it relates to group processes.
5. Ability to perform in a group under different types of group leadership.
6. Ability to use an understanding of how groups behave for greater self-understanding.

CONTENT

INTRODUCTION

Those in public service can work more effectively if they understand the power of group loyalties in determining people's behavior in a disaster situation. For example, the social-service aide increases the togetherness of his client's families through his deepened knowledge of group leadership and cultural differences. The pre-school teacher's aide uses knowledge of group leadership and cultural differences to explore group conformity and productivity in the classroom.

Planning aides may [illegible]ch together and hold a brain-storming session, in which creative ideas are fostered. Law enforcement officers need to know about the psychology of crowds. The lesson is plain: public service employees need to acquire basic skills in understanding the individual within a group context.

This unit is designed to help the student acquire the necessary skills and attitudes to use his understanding of group processes both on and off the job. The content for this unit comes primarily from the behavioral sciences of psychology and sociology, and in particular in that area of overlap between the two called *social psychology*. For this, there is a simple definition: *Social psychology is the study of the bahavior of individuals in social or group contexts.*

This study of man and group processes has value in its own right, in providing knowledge basic to skills of effective group participation, and to effective participation in society. In addition to highlighting the major concepts of group dynamics, this unit will briefly explore the concept of leadership, the various types of group leadership, and the manner in which they affect group processes.

GROUPS

Types. There are two major types of groups: membership and reference:

Membership groups can be defined loosely as those groups to which one belongs (family, community), and *reference groups* (social, civic) as those to which one aspires. The distinction between these so-called *primary* and *secondary* groups is emphasized to point out the significance and influence of groups to which all people actually belong.

Group Role Playing. Reference groups exert considerable pressures on the individual which can shape behavior and attitudes as much as do membership groups, if not more so. A reference group is a group taken as a frame of reference for self evaluation and attitude formation. If the group one aspires to is considered to be more *important*, this can be described as aspiration toward *upward mobility*. There are very few people who cannot supply considerable illustrative material which would show how their peer group often has more influence on them in shaping behavior and attitudes than, for example, their family group.

These concepts can be easily illustrated by making concrete analogies to plays or motion pictures. People in real life, just like characters in a play, have *roles*. The various

roles that individuals play are assigned different levels of importance by the group. In turn, these levels of importance are referred to as *status*. For example, leaders have high status and newcomers have low status; many other roles are assumed by people in groups. How does the group support these roles - why does the group *need* them?

Typical Groups to Which People Belong

Some of the groups to which people belong are suggested below; perusal of this listing should afford some insight into one's own role:

Human Beings	Grades
Americans	Age Groups
Boys	Religious Groups
Girls	National Origin Groups (Irish, English, Italian, Russian, etc.)
Adults	
Children	Social Groups (Cub Scouts, Radio Club, dancing class, etc.)
Negroes	
Orientals	Sport Groups (baseball, football, basketball teams, etc.)
Caucasians	
Families	School Groups (reading or singing groups, clean-up committees, etc.)

Group Solidarity. It is not difficult to bring to mind groups that have considerable strength and solidarity. What are these groups like? It is equally easy to think of groups that have little usefulness, as a rule; which do not last very long; and are relatively ineffective. What are these groups like, and what are some of the reasons for their lack of effectiveness? Perhaps groups with strong emotional ties, and similar attitudes and beliefs work more closely together. In times of crisis or stress, groups exhibit considerable solidarity. What does this indicate about different methods of fostering cohesiveness?

Group Membership. In addition, written completion of the

following questionnaire for the group you belong to will give an indication of methods of joining groups, and the consequent responsibilities of members:

EXAMPLE FOR _____ GROUP		AS A MEMBER	
GROUP	HOW DO YOU JOIN?	YOU HAVE TO	YOU SHOULD
Family	Born into it Adoption Marriage	(These responses depend on the member: mother, father, daughter, son, oldest, youngest, grandparents, etc. A separate list for each may be made.)	
Grade	Finish ___ grade Be ___ years old	(These responses will depend on the class.)	
Americans	Born Naturalized		Not break laws Vote, etc.
Human Beings	Born		
Race: White Negroid etc.	Born (You might question the racial group of a child of a mixed marriage.)	(List for each group. If the class feels there are no *have to's* or *should's*, then leave blank.)	
Cub Scouts	Be a boy between ___ and ___ years old.	Take the Oath (which says ... 1. 2. 3. Wear Uniform	
Radio Club			
Teams	Take Class		

Conformity with Group Values. A basic human requirement appears to be the need to confirm one's personal beliefs and opinions. In other words, to have other people agree with you. This need may teach individuals to conform to group values. Conformity in groups is exhibited not only in outward behavior; it may extend to the person's motives and attitudes and even

to the way the individual thinks and perceives the world about him. Under conditions of group pressure, conformity is induced. The individual either gradually assumes the values of the group, or he will eventually leave the group.

The feelings or inclinations of many individuals have been opposed to those of the groups or organizations with which they have been affiliated. Individuals may or may not have become consciously aware of the pressures exerted on them to bring their own feelings and behavior into line with those of the group. Studies have shown that even when the majority opinion of a group is contrary to what may be obvious, the individual will almost always yield to the majority pressure. Thus the mere assertion of majority opinion, without any effort to persuade, may lead susceptible individuals to agree with the majority, despite the fact that the individual's judgement would normally lead to opposite conclusions.

Group Communications. Groups that exist for any length of time appear to develop a typical communication pattern. This is evidenced by the fact that individuals in the group show consistency in the number of communications they receive, the number they initiate, and the content of the communications that they start. The more status an individual has, the more frequently he receives and initiates communications. Usually, however, people with the highest status are not the best liked. Also, the larger the size of the group, the greater the difference between the high and low communicators.

Another way for a group member to receive a lot of attention is to disagree with a group opinion or belief. A group dissenter may initially receive a large number of communications from other members. However, if his behavior is judged incorrigible, he is likely to then receive a minimum of communications. For example, if an individual violently disagrees with an important group belief, the others may at first try to convince him, or put pressure on him to conform. After awhile, if this does not work, the dissenter may be left out of meetings, ignored, or ostracized.

Effect of Friendships on Group Communications. Friends communicate more with friends than with nonfriends. In general, communications are likely to be directed toward high-status persons, friends, or toward persons of equal status. Thus, status does affect not only the kind and quality of communication in a group situation, but also the effectiveness of group activity.

Further evidence will be found in the following discussion of group processes and leadership.

GROUP LEADERSHIP

Society could not function without people who can exert influence, initiate ideas, organize and formulate goals, and inspire others. Just as individual groups need a leader, combined groups need a leading group. Leadership is necessary because, without it, group processes would not be able to function.

Essentials for Leadership. These concepts are essential to effective leadership:

- The leader increases his acceptability to the group by constantly mixing with its members. He maintains his group membership by interchanging personal services with them, seldom dominating the group.
- The leader sets clear group goals. He defines his duties along with those of the group. He organizes and stimulates production, prodding the group whenever necessary for greater achievement.
- The leader optimizes the amount of communication among members of the group. He gives information, and seeks it from group members. He creates an environment that is favorable to group communication, making it easier to get the work done.

Functions of Leaders. Essentially, good leaders formulate and dramatize objectives. They do this by creating group morale, and stimulating members to work together in a common task. The leader is a rallying center for group action.

The second general function of a leader is the administrative or executive role. He plans the program or goals, arranges for a division of labor, and marks out the lines of authority. The leader must inspire and direct.

To the extent an individual is successful in accomplishing both of these functions (and only to that extent), he is effective. Ideally, a good leader would be able to both inspire and direct at the same time. The difficulty involved in accomplishing this may partially explain why there is a constant need for good leaders, managers, and supervisors in the working world.

Styles of Leadership. These three distinct styles of leadership have been identified by social psychologists:

Authoritarian Leadership. The leader who determines all policy and dictates the steps necessary to accomplish goals is an

authoritarian leader. He wants his authority known, and will not hesitate to use force to succeed. Often these leaders have been given their authority by law, and were not chosen by the group. The authoritarian leader supervises work closely and keeps everyone busy. He will tend to be personal in his praise and criticism of the work of each member, but will remain separate from group work except when demonstrating.

Democratic Leadership. The leader who allows policy to be determined by group discussion and decision, and encourages communication, is a democratic leader. He will often use bargaining or cooperative methods so that everyone gains satisfaction in accomplishing tasks. The democratic leader will call for a vote to guide group action.

Group members are free to work with whomever they choose, and the division of tasks is left up to the group. He is more objective in his praise or criticism of individuals, and tries to be a regular group member in spirit, although not doing too much of the work.

Laissez-faire Leadership. Laissez-faire comes from the French word meaning - "to let do." Accordingly, a laissez-faire leader lets the group do whatever they want. Laisses-faire leadership is *hands off* leadership - complete freedom for the group or individual. This type of leader does not participate in the group project; he does, however, provide information if asked. Praise or criticism comes in infrequent and spontaneous occasions, with no set pattern of evaluation.

Group Atmospheres Created by Leadership Styles. Important implications for group processes arise out of the type of leadership style used.

The Authoritarian Style produces two general atmospheres. The first is an *aggressive authoritarian atmosphere* in which the individuals are competitive and hostile. They may blame work failures on others *(scapegoating)* and display a high degree of discontent. Although work does get done in this atmosphere, it often gets disrupted if the leader leaves the work area.

The second response to the authoritarian leader is the *submissive authoritarian atmosphere*. Here there is no rebellion, the workers go about their chores in a quiet and mechanical way. The work gets done, but with little play or loafing. Little discontent is expressed by these group members.

The *democratic atmosphere* is characterized by a high level of friendly behavior toward the leader and toward other members of the group. Work is carried on a reasonable level, with a strong *"we"* attitude to get the job done. People seem to be happy while working together.

The *laissez-faire atmosphere* produces results which are similar to the authoritarian style in the sense that good morale is not usually created in such a group, and discontent, together with hostile behavior toward other group members, often results. It seems that frustration can result from no direction, as well as from too much direction. Mutual interferences are likely to disrupt laissez-faire groups, producing group tensions and lowered morale.

Leadership Training. Leadership can be learned - everyone isn't a born leader. Some important characteristics have been identified which help predict those who will make good leaders, and those who will not. Most effective leaders have these characteristics:

- *Social awareness* - they are aware of the feelings, opinions, and attitudes of the group members.
- *Ability to think* - there is a high correlation between intelligence and leadership.
- *Emotional stability* - they have warm, friendly personalities, free of insecurity and anxiety.

Depending upon the type of leader desired, and the particular situation, the kind of leadership training needed will vary. The retraining of leaders or managers can also be accomplished.

Many public service agencies have special management training programs for individuals who assume management positions. In addition, particular agencies may send their newly promoted managers to outside agencies or schools for management training.

STUDENT LEARNING ACTIVITIES

- List at least eight different kinds of groups.
- Identify distinguishing characteristics of membership groups and reference groups.
- In small groups, discuss how group pressures and values might inhibit or facilitate communication.
- Write an essay on the role of status in relation to the amount of communication an individual might receive in a group.
- View and discuss films on group processes, such as: *What Will Patty Do?, Group Pressure, Anatomy of a Group, Diagnosing Group Operation.*
- Role-play the various types of leadership styles by simulating an authoritarian, democratic, and laissez-faire group leader.

- Discuss how a particular leadership style might affect group communications.
- Develop a list of the three most important characteristics of a group leader.
- Listen to taped conversations of leaders (for example, *Citizenship Processes* or *World Personalities: World Leaders*), and discuss the effectiveness of their leadership styles.
- Debate the following statement: "Leaders cannot both inspire and direct at the same time."

TEACHER MANAGEMENT ACTIVITIES

- Have the students develop individual lists of various groups.
- Provide examples of membership groups and reference groups, and discuss the differences and simularities between them.
- Encourage discussion on such points as group pressures and values.
- Show films on group processes, such as: *What Will Patty Do?, Group Pressure, Anatomy of a Group, Diagnosing Group Operation.*
- Assign written exercises on the role of status and its affect on group communication.
- Arrange role-playing exercises on leadership styles - authoritarian, democratic, and laissez-faire.
- Encourage small group discussion on the type of group atmosphere a particular leadership style evokes.
- Discuss with the class the concept that leadership style affects group communications.
- Divide the class into small groups and have each group come up with its own list of the three most important characteristics of effective leaders.
- Present taped conversation of different leadership styles: for example, *Citizenship Processes* or *World Personalities: World Leaders*, and discuss the effectiveness of their leadership styles.
- While listening to role-playing exercises of different leadership styles, use a rating sheet to evaluate the effectiveness of each leader. Encourage the students to use rating sheets, too.

RESOURCES

Leaders and Leadership (Transparency, purchase), Creative Visuals, 1969.

What you Expect of Members of your Peer Group (Transparency, purchase), Creative Visuals, 1969.

Handbook of Social Psychology, Second Edition Vol. IV Group Psychology and Phenomena of Interaction, Gardner Lindzey and E. Aronson, Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Inc., 1969.

Social Psychology: Individuals, Groups, Societies, John W. McDavid and Herbert Harari, Harper and Row, 1968.

Introduction to Group Dynamics, Malcolm Knowles and Hulda Knowles, Association Press, 1969.

Group Dynamics, Josef Cohen, Rand McNally and Company, 1969.

Anatomy of a Group (Movie 16mm reel, rental), Indiana University A-V Center, 1970.

Group Process and Gang Delinquency, James F. Short, Jr., and Frank L. Strodtbeck, University of Chicago Press, 1965.

How to Develop Better Leaders, Malcolm Knowles and Hulda Knowles, Association Press, 1969.

World Personalities: World Leaders (Ser 6, Audio-Cassette, purchase), Classroom World, 1970.

For Those Who Must Level, Hillsdale College Faculty, Dartnell Corp., 1970.

Think of Others First (Filmstrip, purchase), Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc., 1969.

What Will Patty Do? (Group Pressure), (Movie 8mm, loop, purchase, CENCO Educational Aids, 1969.

Diagnosing Group Operation (Movie 16mm reel, rental), Indiana University A-V Center, 1970.

Not Left to Change (Movie 16mm reel, rental), Indiana University A-V Center, 1970.

Citizenship Processes (Audio Tape Reel, purchase), H. Wilson, 1969.

Sociology: The Study of Man in Society, Charles E. Merrill, 1969.

The Study of Sociology, Charles E. Merrill, 1969.

Helping the Child Accept the Do's (Movie 16mm reel, loan), Connecticut State Department of Health, 1969.

Unit 4

WORKING WITH COMMUNITY ORGANIZATIONS AND GROUPS

Here are the contents of Unit 4 of the Social-Services group. We suggest a careful reading of it before you read the text.

INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES 49

CONTENT 49

Introduction 49

Increasing Community Acceptance of Agency Services 50
- Reaching the Appropriate People
- Gaining Knowledge of the Community
  - Learning About Problems
  - Learning from Groups
  - Putting Knowledge to Work
- Relationship of the Aide to Community Groups
- Delivering the Message to Community Persons
  - The Community - Agency Bridge
  - Adherence to Agency Policy
- Dialogue Between Community and Agency

Skills Important to Community Work 55
- The Aide and His Participation in Meetings
  - Setting up a Meeting
  - Getting People to Come to a Meeting
  - Goals of a First Meeting
  - If the Aide is Chairman
  - The Agenda
- Observing a Meeting

Working with the Group 59
- Keeping a Group Going
- Helping a Group Solve a Problem

STUDENT LEARNING ACTIVITIES 61

TEACHER MANAGEMENT ACTIVITIES 62

RESOURCES 62

Unit 4

WORKING WITH COMMUNITY ORGANIZATIONS AND GROUPS

INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

1. Ability to identify the various types of community work performed by social-service aides.
2. Ability to understand how to recruit clients for a social-service agency.
3. Ability to recognize the importance of acquiring knowledge of the community in order to work more effectively as a social-service aide.
4. Ability to define the relationship between social-service aides and community groups.
5. Ability to acquire the necessary skills to successfully conduct a community meeting.
6. Ability to help community groups solve their own problems.
7. Ability to use an understanding of community organizations and groups to work with them more effectively as social-service aides.

CONTENT

INTRODUCTION

There are two major types of activities for social-service aides in the community. First, the aide attempts to spread knowledge of agency services and to increase their use by community residents eligible for them. In addition, the aide learns how community persons feel about agency services and relays his findings to the agency staff. Together, these two

activities make up what has been called the bridge function of the aide - the linking together of residents in the community and social services.

Another part of the aide's community work is to gather support from individuals and groups, or to help them develop the strength to make certain changes in community conditions and services. Here the aide is involved in social action.

INCREASING COMMUNITY ACCEPTANCE OF AGENCY SERVICES

Reaching the Appropriate People. Many persons are unaware of the services that are available to them, particularly in poor communities. A mother may want to work but may be unable to do so because she has no reliable, well-qualified person to care for her children. She may not know that there are day-care services in the neighborhood for which her children would be eligible. On the other hand, the problem may be a lack of sufficient day-care centers in a community, in which case community residents may be helped to take action to secure such services.

There are several important tasks involved in spreading the word about community services:

- An aide needs to *know as much about the services* as an intake worker who explains them to the client applying for help - who is eligible, what exactly is offered, the hours when service is offered, etc.

- An aide needs to *know who* in the community needs but seems not to be using services. This involves finding out the most efficient way to reach as many people as possible, preferably in groups rather than individually. Are they likely to belong to groups, and if so, what kind?

It makes no sense to go to a parent-teachers meeting at a school to explain what legal services are available to poor persons when the people who need them most do not attend such meetings. They may not belong to any official, organized groups, but may perhaps be members of social groups that exist mainly for mutual benefit, such as a home-town club or a card club. Their only affiliation may be as members of churches; perhaps, only small storefront churches, rather than with the established larger church groups.

Finally, those who most need information about services may be unaffiliated with any groups or gatherings. If the persons the social-service aide is trying to reach belong to informal groups, he will have to speak to the group in a way that is most likely to be understood by the members. This will involve knowing something about the group and the usual way that people

talk and act in it. If the persons are unaffiliated, the aide will have to find the best ways of getting the message to them in their homes or on the street.

Gaining Knowledge of the Community. Part of getting to work in the community is getting to know about it. The aide may be a resident of this neighborhood, and even have been hired as an aide partly because of his knowledge of it and his contacts with other community residents. But even so, the aide needs to take a look at the community from his new position as an aide.

For example, he may have been active in educational affairs and may be informed about educational problems, and about groups interested in improving education and persons who have the ability to make decisions, or who have status in the field of education. If the aide's job is concerned with welfare, housing, or recreational facilities, he will need to find out about different individual groups, and those people who are involved and who have influence in these other fields.

Learning about Problems. Depending on the aide's assignment, he may have to get in touch with organized groups in the community that are interested in some of the problems the agency wishes him to work on; reach all groups in order to inform persons about agency services; or recruit persons who are probably unaffiliated with groups but who need to be reached. The social-service aide will also need to know something about how to get things done in this particular community, such as which legislators are likely to be helpful with what type of community problems. In addition to whatever the worker knows about the community already and what information his agency possesses, the aide should be familiar with some methods of gaining these kinds of information.

Learning from Groups. The aide may be able to find out about established groups and something about community problems from neighborhood associations, to which many groups belong. Such organizations are often interested in a variety of community problems.

There may be a citywide health and welfare council that coordinates the work of all agencies and groups interested in welfare problems. A council may be able to put the aide in touch with local groups involved in the problem.

There are certain citywide groups interested in problems, such as housing, civil rights, and education, and these may be sources of information about problems, perhaps even on a neighborhood basis. They may also be able to put the aide in touch with local people who are concerned with these problems.

There may be a local social agency, a local university, or an agency concerned with social research that has made a study of community problems and conditions, and can supply the worker with facts about the problems he is working on.

Finally, the aide must be out in the community, talking with people on street corners and park benches, interviewing shopkeepers, meeting people who congregate at the corner grocery, talking with clients and their friends, and observing the activities of youngsters, the use of playgrounds, the conditions of housing, and the like.

A balanced knowledge, based on personal observation and perhaps on his own experience as a resident, and on factual information (if it is available), is a desirable foundation for community work.

Putting Knowledge to Work. Learning about the community, its people, its groups, and its problems is a continuous process, partly because there is a great deal to learn, and partly because there is much change. As the aide works, he may become a specialist in certain areas, such as housing, recreation, and police protection.

But, for the most part, the social-service aide will be a generalist, a *jack-of-all-trades*. The worker must not only keep informed about the community through his contact with the people and groups in it - from clients to community leaders - but he must also keep abreast of local, regional, national, and even world events that may influence his work. If the mayor announces that his office will find jobs for youngsters this summer, the aide will want to be the first to know, so that he can quickly let neighborhood persons know how they can take advantage of this opportunity. If Congress is considering a housing bill, the aide may want to bring this to the attention of community groups and urge that they either support or oppose it.

This sounds like a big job - and it is. No one will expect the beginning aide in public service work to have these skills and abilities immediately. But the aide's work and training should aim him in this direction. One can never know all there is to know about particular problems, much less about a number of problems. The new aide should therefore develop ways of learning how to get information and where to find and how to use the skills of specialists, experts, and consultants in his community.

One of the aide's major resources is, of course, his supervisor and other experts in his agency.

Relationship of the Aide to Community Groups. The relationship between the aide and community groups depends on the nature of his assignment, characteristics of the groups served, the aide's own style of working, and other factors.

For example, if the aide is trying to recruit clients or to establish a pressure group to work for quicker responses to housing-code violations, he may have to act as an organizer. He will have an active role, and will persuade, urge, and convince. If he attends a meeting to explain his agency's services or a certain policy of the agency, he will be a guest speaker and will try to relate to the group as he has observed others doing. This active role is suitable to the aide, who may be a community resident and who can be expected, more than the professional who is an outsider, to understand the needs of the community.

Frequently, the professional community worker has been an enabler, one who helps the group to function better, but who usually does not assume a leadership role. He encourages organization, helps to smooth relations between members, gathers needed information, etc. The idea is to encourage the group to be independent of the worker, to develop its own leadership, and to make its own decisions and plans. Sometimes, aides will be enablers, too.

Probably the new worker will find himself playing a number of these roles, often with the same group. As he begins assignments and as work progresses, he will need to determine which roles will be most helpful to the community group in achieving its goals.

Delivering the Message to Committee Persons. Obviously, public service agencies should not and probably cannot be linked with people unless their services are genuinely needed by the people. One often speaks of clients as being *unmotivated* to use agencies, when perhaps they fail to use services because the services are not as useful as they might be. It is the job of the aide, who serves as bridge between the agencies and the community, to inform agency staff of the attitudes of community residents toward services.

The Community - Agency Bridge. There will probably be established procedures in most public service agencies for passing on what an aide learns to those persons in a position to make changes in the agency. The new worker should learn these procedures carefully, and never fail to report what he has learned from individuals and groups. In turn, he should not fail to report back to community residents the results of his efforts. If the aide seems to ignore their opinions, they will gradually cease to think it worthwhile to let him know

how they feel. An aide's request for their comments will have seemed a mere courtesy rather than purposeful.

It may be that the agency could make a change but chooses not to, or is not in a position to make the changes which are requested. Even if the worker is on the side of some of the community persons, he must accurately and immediately relay the message to them, informing them of whatever rights they have to appeal the policies of social agencies.

Adherence to Agency Policy. The aide must be careful to remember that, no matter how strongly he disagrees with agency policy, he is an agency employee. An aide's role is to make his opinions and those of others known to agency administrators and perhaps to join other staff members in attempting to influence these decisions. It is not the aide's role to work against the agency as if he were a community resident, rather than a staff member. It is very hard to keep these roles straight, especially when the aide is a community resident himself and has much in common with the persons who are criticizing the agency. Above all, the aide should avoid giving community persons false hope by confusing his understanding of their position with his ability to get something done about it.

Dialogue Between Community and Agency. Community persons may criticize certain things about agency services that are within the power of agency officials to change. For example, they may let the aide know that services would be more widely used if there were evening hours, or if there were translators for persons who speak a foreign language. These types of changes may be made by administrators, and probably would require no new laws or decisions by elected officials, such as the mayor or governor. The agency staff may even be able to modify public housing policies, such as those that deny apartments to women who have illegitimate children. Obviously, some of the objections raised by community residents are more likely to be greeted with a positive response than others.

There are other types of needed changes in community services that the agency staff cannot make and that therefore require enough community support to influence legislators or other government officials.

It may be that services are not so much under-used as insufficient. Community residents can be encouraged to take action that will lead to increased services, such as collecting signatures on a petition for presentation to an elected official, writing letters to the newspaper, organizing a march in support of the measure, or sending a delegation to Washington or the state capital. The choice of action plans depends upon what goes on in the community, the type of changes sought,

the steps already taken, etc., to name a few considerations.

It may be that the desired action is not directly related to the aide's agency but very much influences how his agency services are used. For example, although the new aide may be on the staff of the welfare department, he still may be able to assist community residents in securing better housing, since they can hardly be led toward greater personal and financial independence (the goal of income maintenance programs) if they are being dragged down by deteriorated housing. Or the aide may advocate changes in shopping facilities because he knows that high prices and inferior merchandise make it harder for welfare clients, as well as other poor people, to get by.

Bringing about changes in community conditions and services not directly affected by his agency may be a less difficult role for the aide than for the professional, partly because it is less likely to involve the kinds of conflict of interest that we have been mentioning above.

SKILLS IMPORTANT TO COMMUNITY WORK

In this discussion, it is impossible to cover all the skills required of the social-service aide who works in the community. Many of these he will have already developed as a citizen, parent, or active participant in his community. Since most community work involves formal or informal participation in meetings, this discussion will deal primarily with the aide's behavior in regard to meetings, as well as with some steps that might be taken by a group to solve a community problem.

The Aide and His Participation in Meetings.

Setting Up a Meeting. If a social-service aide is asked to set up a meeting, here is a checklist of things he should do:

- Does everyone know where and when the meeting is being held? Have reminders been sent out or calls made?
- Are there enough seats for everyone? A place for hats and coats?
- Are there name tags or cards for each person? Are there blank tags and a marker for the names of people who come unexpectedly? If there are no tags, is there another way for people to be introduced to each other?
- Are there copies of the agenda for everyone? If not, can it be put on a big poster or blackboard? Is there room on the agenda for topics to be added by the group?
- Are there people who can interpret or translate for those who speak a different language?

- Will someone be selected to take notes at the meeting, so that decisions and discussions are not lost?
- Will a report of the meeting be sent to each person who attended? To others who couldn't come?
- Does the aide have printed material from his agency to hand out? If not, is he prepared to tell the group members what they need to know about the agency's services?
- Is the aide prepared to introduce himself to the group? To tell them something about himself?
- Have other people been helped to participate in the meetings? Have they been supplied with information and given a chance to discuss or even practice their part?

Obviously, some of these items may not apply to the kind of group the aide is working with or to the type of meeting that will be held. There may be some other considerations, such as child-care arrangements, if it is important for mothers to attend.

Getting People to Come to a Meeting. Getting people to come to a meeting can be a very difficult job. The aide may be asked to recruit people and get them interested. This may mean going from door to door, or talking with people in supermarkets, laundromats, bars, churches, etc. If he has friends in the community, the aide can ask them to help him. If he doesn't have friends there, he should try to get to know people he has seen once or twice, particularly his clients in individual services.

People will be more likely to come to a meeting if a friend asks them to go. Calling on a person lets him know that the worker is interested in him as a person. It gives him the feeling that if he comes to the meeting he will not be a stranger - he will at least know one other person, the aide himself.

A personal visit is more likely to get results than a phone call or a postcard. Phone and mail contacts are helpful reminders after a personal visit or contact has been made. Of course, it will not always be possible to see each person individually. A committee composed of people who have already indicated their willingness to attend can be used to attract more people. Sometimes, if the aide knows one person in a building or on a block, he can get him to ask his neighbors. People are more likely to come if they are invited by someone they know well and can trust. When an aide can get people to help him encourage attendance, the chances for a successful meeting are increased.

Goals of a First Meeting. Certain things need to happen at the first meeting of a group if it is to be successful in

launching its program:

- People should get acquainted and exchange points of view.
- Group members should agree on what they will tackle first.
- The group should agree on how it will tackle the program.
- People should be given responsibilities for working on the problem.
- The group should agree on the time and place for the next meeting.
- The members should make plans for bringing in other people who need to be involved in the next meeting.

If the Aide is Chairman. In some instances, the social-service aide may have to run the first meeting. If this happens, the aide should let the group know that he is taking this responsibility only until the group has an opportunity to select its own chairman. As temporary chairman, the worker should keep certain things in mind:

- Try to create an informal atmosphere where people feel free to talk and exchange ideas in a friendly way.
- Try to provide a sense of direction so that members will see that the meeting is getting somewhere.
- Ask questions which help to make other people's remarks clearer.
- Summarize from time to time.
- Suggest that the group consider one idea at a time.
- Bring people back to the topic if they get off the track.
- If other members are able to do some of these things, let them. This means they are on the way to taking over the group themselves.

The Agenda. It is a good idea to start out with an agenda (a written list of things to be discussed). The agenda can be made up in advance of the meeting by the aide, or preferably, by a committee of members. Copies of the agenda should be available to everyone who comes to the meeting. This helps people to stick to the topics and gives them an idea of what will happen next.

However, the agenda should not keep people from discussing other topics; it should not interfere with the flexibility to deal with new problems as they arise.

Observing a Meeting. Observing a meeting is important for several reasons. First, it helps the social-service aide develop the skills needed to organize a meeting. It may also give the aide some clues of the manner in which certain groups or certain community residents behave at meetings. If he has to participate in a meeting, the aide can better gear his remarks to their accustomed style. It would be helpful for the aide to attend a variety of community meetings as an observer with his supervisor, or with a person who is experienced in running or helping to organize meetings. In this way, the aide can ask questions on the spot.

Here are some of the things to look for when observing a meeting; they more or less suggest some guidelines for a successful meeting, as well:

- Were people friendly or unfriendly? Was there much talk among people before the meeting started? Did guests and new members feel welcome?
- Was the meeting of a suitable length, or too long? (Meetings are seldom too short!)
- Was there a written agenda? Did everyone get a copy? Was there an orderly presentation of business?
- Did the officers seem well prepared?
- Did everyone get a chance to have his say, or did one or two people dominate the meeting?
- Did members have an opportunity to propose and vote on their own motions, or was action already decided by the officers?
- Were things accomplished? Were decisions made or left undecided?
- Were decisions railroaded through without sufficient time for members to think about what was at stake?
- Were people chosen or elected to do jobs and report at the next meeting?
- Did the discussion stick to the matter at hand and move toward a solution?

- Was there an agency worker present? What was his role? Did he take over the meeting or did he let the chairman run the meeting?

- Did he step in at the right times to help the members over the rough sports, offer advice, information, etc.?

These are only a few things to keep in mind when observing a meeting.

WORKING WITH THE GROUP

Keeping a Group Going. Here are some ways of keeping a group going, or of holding the members' interest, enthusiasm, and belief in the value of group efforts to solve community problems:

- The more people involved in the planning and leadership group, the more likely it will be an active group. Members lose interest in a one-man organization. If a number of people are contributing leadership, the skills, interests, and resources available to the group are that much greater.

- Seeing a problem through and then moving on to another one, perhaps of more importance, not only maintains interest but increases involvement in community affairs.

- Making the first project one that will succeed will help maintain interest and confidence in the organization.

- Taking time at the end of a meeting to plan for the next meeting is a good way to get people interested in the next meeting, or in coming again.

- Bringing new people into the group helps members feel that it is worthwhile being part of the group. New people bring new ideas, too.

- The agenda should make sense to the group and should be easy to follow.

- Time should be planned so that all members can take part in discussions. People bring their own concerns with them to meetings, and will often use a meeting as a place for *letting off steam.*

- Members should take increasing amounts of responsibility for the group as time goes on. Social-service aides should be available for advice and direction, but leadership should usually be passed on to the members.

Helping a Group Solve a Problem. Social-service aides can insure that a group works together to solve a community problem by following at least the simple steps discussed below, provided they are dealing with simple problems; problems that do not involve much conflict or controversy, such as the one used as an illustration. Although many beginning social-service aides will be working on problems which may be more complicated and more controversial, the steps outlined can help them to focus on how to go about helping a group. But simply following these steps will not insure success. Success, in its fullest sense, depends on many factors, some beyond the aide's control.

- *Help the group to spell out the problem* -- Fifth and Elm is a dangerous corner; there are too many accidents there; we need to do something about it.

- *Make sure everyone understands the problem clearly* -- Does everyone know where Fifth and Elm is? Can you prove that it's a dangerous corner? What facts and figures do you have? What information do you need to make the problem clear? How do you go about getting this information?

- *Help group members decide what result they want* -- The group wants the corner to be safe at all times.

- *Think of ways to solve the problem* -- Put in a traffic light; put up a STOP sign; make the area a play street closed to traffic; post a policeman at the corner.

- *Check each possible solution and decide which is the best* --

  A traffic light requires more money to install than a STOP sign and the city is likely to be in favor of something less costly;

  If the street is made a play street, the problem is solved only during the day, the business establishments on the block would oppose this move, and their support could be helpful for a different solution;

  A policeman would only be posted during heavy traffic hours. The danger is there full-time.

- *Select the best solution* -- A STOP sign seems the best way to handle this situation and the one most likely to be acceptable.

- *Plan and organize for action* -- How does the group ask for a traffic sign to be installed? Who knows the procedures? What information is needed to support the request? Who should be asked to help with the group's effort? Who will be in charge of what? What will the timetable be for the various steps? Do we have an alternative plan if we are turned down?

- *Evalute progress as you go along* -- What steps should be taken according to the plan of action? What steps have been taken? What have been the results? If something didn't work, why didn't it? What changes in plans have to be made as a result of what has happened?

- *Follow-up on the action* -- Are people carrying out their responsibilities on time? If the city said it would act, has it done so? Has the group sent letters of thanks to people who were helpful? What did the group learn about getting things done? What should be done differently next time? What was satisfying? What wasn't satisfying? Why?

One should realize that people who work in social and economic services perform a very important job. Some of what has been written here will not apply to everyone, or to every public-service agency providing social and economic services to individuals and groups. However, one should gain an appreciation for the need to work with community organizations and groups in order to provide meaningful services to people in need.

STUDENT LEARNING ACTIVITIES

- List the various types of community work performed by social-service aides.

- View films on urban communities, such as *The Changing City*, and *How to Live in a City*, and discuss why social-service aides should know about urban communities to be more effective as an aide.

- Participate in a serious game (for example, *Simulation Games: Ghetto*) to recognize the importance of trying to understand clients feelings and attitudes.

- Use case studies (for example, *A Camel is a Horse Designed by a Committee*, *Progress City*, or *The Aide Meets Success*) to better understand the role of social-service aide in working with community organizations and groups.

- In small groups, discuss the relationship of the social-service aide to the community group he serves.

- Prepare a notebook outlining specific strategies you would use to recruit clients for a social-service agency.

- Role-play as a social-service aide setting up a meeting. Use your class as the community group.

- Write a one-page outline showing the problem-solving steps you would utilize to help a community group solve a problem.

TEACHER MANAGEMENT ACTIVITIES

- Discuss with the class the various types of work performed by social-service aides in public service agencies.
- Discuss the problem solving steps an aide might use to help a community group solve a problem.
- Have the class prepare a notebook containing specific techniques or strategies that could be used to recruit clients for a social-service agency.
- Show films on urban communities, such as *The Changing City*, or *How to Live in a City*, and discuss social-service aide effectiveness afterwards.
- Organize the class into small groups for discussion purposes of such topics as *Attitudes of Aides*, *Community-Aide Relationship*, or *Community Meeting Procedure*.
- Have the students role-play as a community group. Assign different students to act as the social-service aide setting up the group meeting.
- Organize the playing of a serious game (for example, *Simulation Games: Ghetto*) as a springboard for class discussion of feelings and attitudes on working with community organizations and groups.
- Assign case studies of community action programs; for example, *A Camel is a Horse Designed by a Committee*, *Progress City*, or *The Aide Meets Success*. Allow the students to report their findings orally.

RESOURCES

- The Changing City (Film 16mm, reel, purchase), Churchill Films, 1970.
- How to Live in a City (Film, 16mm, reel, rental), Indiana University A-V Center, 1970.
- Community Power Structure, Floyd Hunter, Doubleday and Company, Inc., Anchor Books Editions, 1963.
- Community (Film, 16mm, reel, rental), Indiana University A-V Center, 1970.
- Simulation Games: Ghetto (Game, purchase), Western Publishing, 1969.
- How to Conduct a Community Action Meeting (brochure), N. J. Community Action Training Institute.
- Robert's Rules of Order, Henry M. Robert, F.H. Revell Company, 1967.

- Case Studies Available from the New Jersey Community Action Institute, Trenton, N.J.:

  A Camel is a Horse Designed by a Committee

  Want Ad for A Neighborhood Center Supervisor

  Neighborhood Area Service Centers

  Progress City

  Neighborhood Centers As A Tool for Community Action

  The Aide Meets Success

  Organizing A Rural Group

Unit 5

INDIVIDUAL ASSISTANCE SKILLS

Here are the contents of Unit 5 of the Social-Services group. We suggest a careful reading of it before you read the text.

INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES 67

CONTENTS 67

Introduction 67

Attitudes to Clients 68
- Attitude of Service
- Attitudes of Interest
  - Importance of First Contact
  - Uniqueness of Each Person and Problem
  - The Aide and His Own Problem

Communications with Clients 69
- Words with Different Meanings
- Use of Jargon
- Unspoken Communications

Interviewing Clients 70
- Listening
- Response to Client
- Client's Release of Pent-Up Feelings
- Asking Questions
  - Probing vs. Prying
  - Focusing on the Problem

Relationship with the Client 73
- Effect of Agency
- Competition Among Workers

Intake and Screening Functions 74
- Intake Forms
- Identifying the Problem
- Themes and Clues
- Helping the Client Find the Solution

Information Giving 76
- Explaining Agency Function
- Reducing Red Tape in Emergencies

Referral to Other Agencies 77
- Reasons for Referral
  - Preparing an Ineligible Client for Referral
  - Appealing the Ineligibility Decision
- Knowledge of Community Agencies
  - Developing a Resource File
  - Form of Resource File
  - Resource Data Communication
- Referral - a Brokerage Service

Home Visiting 82
- Reasons for a Home Visit
- Behavior in a Client's Home

Concrete Services to Clients 83
- Escort Service
- Shopping
- Child Care

Limitations of Individual Services 85
- The Group as the Preferred Unit of Contact
- Social Action

STUDENT LEARNING ACTIVITIES 86

TEACHER MANAGEMENT ACTIVITIES 87

RESOURCES 88

Unit 5

INDIVIDUAL ASSISTANCE SKILLS

INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

1. Ability to form positive attitudes concerning the provision of individual assistance skills to social-agency clients.
2. Ability to recognize the effect jargon and nonverbal communication have on the social aide-client relationship.
3. Ability to demonstrate a knowledge of interviewing skills used by social-service workers.
4. Ability to acquire a sensitivity to the various factors that affect an aide's relationship with a client.
5. Ability to outline the importance of different individual assistance skills used by social-service aides.
6. Ability, as a potential social-service worker, to show a concern for the feelings of clients.

CONTENT

INTRODUCTION

Within the limitations of space of this document, it is not practical to discuss in depth every possible kind of skill a social-service worker might need to provide services to individuals and families; nor is it feasible to describe how to do every task an aide might be called upon to perform during his career in social service. However, anyone who is competent and satisfied in this field must have an openness to new learning and must actively seek the new knowledge, information, and skills that enable him to do his job. Once an aide begins

work, the supervisor is the closest, day-to-day source of help to him. Inservice training courses will help the new employee to develop greater competence. The aide should know which things he can do best. There will be other skills with which he is less comfortable and less competent. These skills are the ones for which he should seek immediate help.

ATTITUDES TO CLIENTS

Attitudes influence everything one does. Attitudes affect not only beliefs and principles but plans of action as well. Attitudes form and shape an individual's value system.

Attitude of Service. In order to be helpful, the aide must believe in the client's right to service, and the manner of providing service must be one that shows respect for the client's right and ability to make his own choices.

The aide's study of the development of social welfare should have helped him to acquire an appreciation of social responsibility for human needs and of the rights of persons seeking help from the community. An aide is not doing a client a favor when he helps him, and he should not expect the client's gratitude or thanks. Service to individuals is the social-service employee's job.

Attitudes of Interest. Attitudes cannot be concealed from others; they are apparent in the way people treat one another.

Most people can recall an incident, perhaps in a large public clinic, an income-tax office, or the complaint desk of a department store, where he quickly got the feeling that there was little hope of getting what he wanted, and that the "no" would come swiftly and coldly. He did not expect to be understood, nor even to have the opportunity to fully explain his side of the story. He got this feeling partly because of experiences he had before - and social-service clients have had loads of these experiences - and because this situation resembled others where the answer was a quick "no." Workers were ambling around the office chatting with one another, or perhaps sitting at their desks having coffee while he waited, seemingly by the hour.

Contrast this experience with another, perhaps in the same office, where the worker came out promptly, or sent someone else to tell the client that she would see him within a certain length of time. When the worker greeted the client for the first time, she had an attitude of interest that made this a satisfying contact even if the client did not get exactly what he came for.

Importance of First Contact. From the individual client's point of view, the first person to see him represents the agency and affects the client's view of the agency from that time on. As was suggested in the example just given, the basic requirement of the first contact is to convey an interest in the client himself and in his problem. This interest should be accompanied by a calm but by no means uncaring manner - with an air of assurance which will give the client a feeling that things can be worked out and that there is no need for him to panic.

Uniqueness of Each Person and Problem. Aides are often selected because of their natural concern for people and their ability to convey that interest to people. But it is easy to become bogged down during the day's work and to treat someone as if he and his problem were a routine matter. Remember that no one's problem is ever routine to him. One way for an aide to maintain a basic attitude of interest is to remind himself that there is no routine person or problem. Every problem is unique and has its own little twist.

The Aide and His Own Problems. It is extremely difficult to concentrate fully on someone else's problems if the aide himself is burdened or preoccupied with his own. It may sometimes become difficult for an aide to come to work without his problems or without forgetting them for the time he is on the job. It might be in the best interest of the clients if he stayed at home that day.

COMMUNICATIONS WITH CLIENTS

Those who plan to work in social and economic services must realize that they live in an age of communication. Words and pictures are sent around the globe in seconds. But unless people understand what is being sent or said, they will never understand each other. There is a great difference between expressing a meaning and communicating a meaning. It is not enough for the worker's words to be understood; it is vital that they be understood as they were meant.

Words with Different Meanings. It is easy to forget that the same words have different meanings to people of different backgrounds. Then, too, it is often not the words, so much as the implication of the words, that must be made clear. As an example, consider the different meanings which the phrase "lower class" has to social workers and their clients. To the professional, it has a particular factual meaning; it refers to persons with low income, and limited formal education. To others, especially those who find themselves referred to as "lower class," it may suggest or imply inferiority, poor moral standards, and inadequacy. The use of this phrase should, obviously, be quite limited.

Use of Jargon. The use of specialized words and terms that are peculiar to a special field or type of training is called *jargon*. Every job, trade, or profession develops a jargon of its own. Persons who use these terms every day often forget that they may sound strange and confusing to others. As an aide works with professionals from many different fields, and with people from different agencies, he will soon pick up much of this language. When (or if) it is used, he should be sure that others know what he is saying; he should always make an effort to be understood and to speak clearly. Social-service workers should not assume that people will accept them just because they use certain jargon. An aide may not sound as "professional" as some of his co-workers, but it is most unprofessional to use jargon improperly.

Likewise, while an aide should always try to understand the meaning of clients' language, he should not use it himself unless he feels comfortable doing so.

A related problem is the tendency in social and other public agencies to refer to programs and agencies by letters - AFDC for "Aid to Families with Dependent Children," for example. This may be a convenient shortcut in the office, but do not assume that clients or persons in other fields will know what they mean.

Unspoken Communication. Sometimes misunderstandings arise not from what is said, but from what is not said. Inner feelings or attitudes often show through in looks, gestures, or tone of voice. This so-called *body language* is a form of nonverbal communication. A person may be very angry, and though he tries hard not to show it, his anger often makes itself known to the person he is talking to, not by words, but in such ways as an angry look or a clenched fist. The person who is angry is sometimes not aware that his listener is picking up the hidden message he is sending out. People are extremely sensitive to these nonverbal or unspoken forms of communication.

If an aide finds that he is having trouble getting through to people, it may be that he is sending out hidden messages, indicating anger, unfriendliness, or a patronizing or "looking down" attitude. The people the aide is trying to reach might be responding to these inner feelings rather than to his words. All effective communication depends to a great extent on the worker knowing how he really feels, not on how he thinks he should feel.

INTERVIEWING CLIENTS

Much, in fact most, of what one does as a social-service aide may be considered interviewing, though not all talking with

people can be thought of as interviewing. If an aide meets a client on the street by chance and stops to chat about the weather, he would not think of that conversation as an interview. Nor would he need, in this chance meeting, to necessarily act as a worker and discuss the client's problems. On the other hand, aides must not think that they have to be in the office or have an appointment with a client in order to offer services. If the client had something important on his mind, the aide might be passing up an important opportunity to help if he refused to act as the worker in a chance meeting.

Listening. Listening is one of the fundamental skills in interviewing. The first step in becoming a more effective listener is to relax. By letting the client talk, the worker gets an idea of how to formulate questions that the client should be asked, and also learns how to phrase questions and statements so the client will understand. Even if the aide's primary task is to get answers to a set of questions, he can probably learn most by letting the client talk rather freely at first. The client will usually answer many questions before they are asked. What he says and the way he says it may often suggest the proper way of approaching him for additional information.

Response to Client. One way for the aide to be sure he has understood what the client is telling him is to *feedback* what he thinks the client said, thus giving the client a chance to correct the aide or to change what he said. However if the aide's feedback is critical of the client's behavior, then the client may change what he says to please the aide, although he will not necessarily mean what he says. On the other hand, the aide's criticism may make the client feel that he has to explain and justify his statements or his behavior in order to protect himself.

The aide may not like some of the behavior of some of his clients. At this point, understanding individual differences in value systems becomes very important. The aide can like the client or be interested in helping him without approving of all his actions. If a client feels he cannot tell an aide what he actually feels or does without being criticized, the worker will not be able to help him.

If the aide is critical, he may stifle the client's communicative ability, and the aide will not know whether the client is revising his statements in order to make the aide understand, or because he feels the aide wants him to or will not like him, otherwise. If he changes his statement to agree with what the social service aide wants, the new version will not truly reflect what he thinks.

Client's Release of Pent-Up Feelings. Most people have experienced a need at one time or another to release pent-up feelings. Clients in social-service agencies are no exception to this rule. Sometimes, before the client can examine the facts of his situation, he may have to air his feelings or let off emotional steam. Once his feelings are out in the open, he can more honestly examine them, and his views of himself or his problems may become more realistic. The worker should encourage the client to express his true feelings. The way people feel is a fact for them, and an aide cannot change feelings by telling people they should not feel that way.

Asking Questions. Since most of the services offered by social and economic agencies are based on accurate accumulation and understanding of the facts and feelings presented by the client, social-service workers need to get as clear an understanding as possible. As previously brought out, there are many questions that do not need to be asked at all, since people will disclose them naturally, if given the opportunity to talk. This will happen quite often because of emotional pressure of the moment.

In the first interview, an aide's listening should be keyed to getting the answers to certain questions: why the person came to the agency; the problem he thought the agency could help with; what the problem is from his point of view; and the solution that he seeks. No matter how freely the client expresses himself, the aide will usually have to ask some questions in order to clarify for himself, as well as for the client, the client's problem and the help he expects to get.

Probing vs. Prying. It takes a lot of self-control to ask only those questions that are related to giving the client the help he needs, rather than following some interesting sideline in the client's story. One needs to be careful to distinguish between *probing* (asking questions in order to get additional facts that we need) and *prying* (everyone knows what that is). One of the topics most often subjected to prying is that of the client's marital relationship. Thus, if a mother comes to the agency to request help in getting additional clothing for children in school, and happens to mention that her husband is not much help in disciplining the children since he is *running around*, the aide must not get sidetracked on the husband-wife relationship. Instead, the aide should try to deal with the immediate problem presented by the client. In future contacts, it may become important to ask questions about the marital problem, depending on the husband's problems, the agency's program, and the aide's assignment.

A social-service aide's sensitivity to the feelings of other people should help him to word questions in such a way that they are asked tactfully. The aide's manner, tone of voice,

and intent in asking the question are more important than the exact way it is phrased. As often as possible the aide must ask questions in such a way as to leave the client's pride and self-esteem intact.

For example, a social-service aide is interviewing an unemployed man whom he suspects is a heavy drinker. The aide needs to make some judgment of how much of a problem his drinking is in order to offer the most suitable service. The aide might ask, *"About how much do you drink per day?"* Thus, the aide accepts the fact that the client drinks, and eliminates the need for him either to confess that he drinks or to make excuses about his drinking.

Focusing on the Problem. A good general rule is to ask questions for two purposes: to obtain specifically needed information, and to direct the client's conversation into fruitful channels.

This may seem to contradict the statement previously made about listening. But the aide is listening for a purpose. He will try to understand what the client is asking so he can be given help.

Sometimes it is necessary to help the client refocus on the main reason he came to the agency. An effective aide can get him back on the track with questions and with comments. Sometimes the only difference between questions and comments is in the inflection or pitch of the interviewer's voice. The aide's questions and comments can be a restatement of what he has said. They also enable the interviewer to ask, in effect, *"What happened next?"* For example, when the unemployed man explains how he was misused at the employment office, the aide can make a brief comment sharing or supporting his indignation over this treatment. By doing this, the aide is then in a position to ask further questions about the rest of what he needs to be told.

RELATIONSHIP WITH THE CLIENT

Everything said about communication, attitudes, listening, asking questions, and commenting forms the basis of the social-service aide's relationship with a client. *The relationship must be one of mutual confidence and cooperation.* For the psychologist and some other professionals, the relationship, in and of itself, may have great importance. But for the social-service worker, the relationship is formed for the purpose of offering the client a service.

Effect of Agency. How much confidence and cooperation really exists between the client and the worker depends to some extent

upon the kind of agency in which service is offered. Workers employed by locally-run antipoverty or other *grass-roots* organizations can expect the most confidence and cooperation, since the client has some say (at least through his representatives) in how the agency is run. In more authoritarian agencies, such as the courts or correctional institutions, in which the client is offered services not by his own choice but because someone considers him a problem or feels that he has a problem, the client may not be fully cooperative. The beginning social-service aide must not be disappointed when this is the case.

It is the worker's responsibility to set the limits of the relationship so that the client will not be deceived into thinking that the worker can do more than his agency will permit him to do. For example, if a tenant in a public-housing project is considered a problem by the management, it would be unfair of the aide to accept confidences of the client concerning illegal activities or other infringements of housing rules and regulations that the aide might need to report or use against the tenant.

Competition Among Workers. In most social and economic service agencies, there are several types of staff involved in contact with clients. Where there are social-service aides and professional social workers, issues frequently arise about who has the *best* relationship with the client - who knows most about the client, who understands the client best, or who the client feels more comfortable with. Such rivalry is not helpful to the client.

A home-visiting aide, for example, can become more friendly with a client than the caseworker who sees the client only for a short interval at a time. But there is no need for rivalry or jealousy between the aide and the caseworker. The services of each should complement those of the other. The client is not private property. *Workers on all levels need to share insights with one another to offer better service to clients.*

INTAKE AND SCREENING FUNCTIONS

Intake, screening, and information services are important individual assistance skills to acquire. In all of these, the social-service aide will probably be the first worker in the agency to greet the client. The client's confidence in the agency's ability to help him will to a great extent depend upon how the aide handles this first contact. All that has been said about establishing rapport, listening, showing interest and concern, apply here.

Intake Forms. Most public-service agencies have some kind of form to be filled out by the intake worker, or by the client, when agency contact is begun. The questions on the form can be useful in helping the worker to direct conversation in such a way that the needed information can be obtained. It is to the worker's advantage to be thoroughly familiar with the form so that he or she can ask questions in the order that they make sense in the interview, rather than the order in which they are listed on the form. Also, the worker may find it helpful to *translate* some of the phrases used on the form so that the client can answer more carefully, if the client is actually involved in filling out the forms himself.

If the client group is non-English-speaking, then the forms the clients use should be in the language of the clients. In any dynamic agency, the worker can feel free to bring this suggestion to his supervisor and to expect that the agency will want its forms to be useful rather than a hindrance in serving clients. Clients will also feel much more at ease and welcome if an agency has made the effort to *speak their language* in this way. In these small ways, as well as in larger areas, agencies communicate their genuine concern for clients.

Identifying the Problem. In addition to setting the tone for the client's future relationship with the agency, the aide will need to develop the ability to quickly determine the nature of the problem the client presents, and to make a judgment about what the next steps for himself and the clients are. This is not an easy thing to do, since the problem presented, like so many problems, may lead in many directions.

For example, the aide may be faced with a *crisis,* such as a family's eviction because of nonpayment of rent due to the father's recent hospitalization for a terminal illness (one that will take his life). The children, the aide quickly learns, have not been able to attend school. The mother comes to the social service and talks in depressed tones. She is worried about the fact that the children are missing school - probably because she cannot face the more grave problems of her husband's expected death and their homelessness. In this situation, the client needs help in pulling herself together and getting herself going again. She must have assistance in focusing on her problems, one at a time, starting with the most serious, or those requiring immediate attention. It will be obvious to the worker that this client is overwhelmed by the seriousness of her very difficult problems. And, recognizing that she is at a standstill, the worker needs to become more active and involved in making plans and carrying them out than he would be if the client were better able to cope with the problems by herself, or with just a little help.

Themes and Clues. Generally, the aide will be responsible for offering help with the problems for which the client requests aid. No matter how involved the story, there is a certain recurring theme - a topic that the client keeps returning to. This theme is usually the worker's clue as to what the client needs or expects. Of course, the other main clue is what the client actually says he wants. The client's definition of a problem is important in offering service.

Helping the Client Find the Solution. If a person develops his own plan for solving, or at least dealing with, a problem, he is more likely to feel he wants to carry it out. If he can think out loud with someone he sees as being interested, understanding, helpful, and uncritical, then he will feel better able to explore possible solutions to his problem.

One way to develop a plan for dealing with a problem is ask the client to think of several ways in which the problem could be handled. The aide could help the client to clarify his possible solutions. Then the aide might get the client to imagine for himself some of the outcomes or effects of each solution. If the client makes the choice himself from among several alternatives, he is more likely to act or to carry out the plan. It is then his plan rather than the plan of the aide.

INFORMATION GIVING

Explaining Agency Function. When an aide and a client both have a clear understanding about the problem and the possible help available, it is then the worker's role to interpret or tell the client what the agency can do and how it goes about providing services. The client is not interested in everything the agency does - just those services which would be helpful to him. Don't bother him with a complete description of what the agency does.

It goes without saying that the worker who does *intake interviewing* must be well aware of the services provided by the agency. That worker must know what the policies of the agency are; who is eligible and under what conditions; how long it takes to get services or whether there is a waiting list; and whether there is any additional information the agency will need to collect from other persons or organizations. He must find out these facts in order to know whether a client is eligible, or whether the agency is able to help him.

Reducing Red Tape in Emergencies. In the case example of the family with the dying father facing eviction, the worker, being sensitive to the strain that the mother is under, would

not burden her further with a recitation of rules and regulations about the agency services. Chances are the worker would immediately begin to help the mother qualify for emergency financial and housing assistance, if the worker's agency could offer such help. Otherwise, the worker would help her to get such services from another agency by referring her to that agency.

The worker would short-cut as much red tape as possible. This might include helping her make out the necessary forms to apply for financial help, and to prove that she and her family are in need. In this case, the worker would not give her the forms to take home and return at some later time. Many of the questions on the forms would have already been answered in discussing the problem so that the worker would need only to check the facts that he does not remember and those that were not discussed.

The worker should know which facts require proof or verification other than the client's statement and from what sources this information is available and acceptable to the agency. From among the various ways that this proof can be obtained, the worker should be able to help the client choose the easiest one for him.

In the case example being discussed, the worker might call the hospital to learn the details of the husband's condition from the social-service worker assigned to the ward or department in which he is being treated. Or, if that is not possible, the aide might write a letter to the hospital asking for the needed information in order to make it easier for the client to complete the application and supply the missing facts.

While the worker is dealing mostly with the problem presented by the client, that of getting the family rehoused, she might call the school and inform teachers of the problem, reassuring them that the children will be helped to get back to school. Thus the aide may help to prevent other problems from occuring.

REFERRAL TO OTHER AGENCIES

Reasons for Referral. A future social-service aide will probably need to help many clients to use other social agencies. Some clients may not be eligible for the services, or they may have problems that are not handled by the particular agency from which they are seeking help.

A social agency and its staff have a responsibility for helping people with problems that are not the primary work of the agency. Their problems are no smaller because they are ineligible for aid or the service is inappropriate for meeting them. The social-service worker has a concern with the whole

person; people are not split up into parts like work assignments.

It is the task of the workers to put the client in touch with, or to refer him to, other social agencies that have been set up to cope with either some or all of his problems. Sometimes the worker will play the major helping role, part of which will be assisting the client to use resources outside the agency.

For example, the worker may help the client primarily with a health problem of her oldest child. However, it may become apparent that the family has a severe financial problem, and in fact, has an income below the amount at which people are considered eligible for public assistance. The worker may continue to help the client plan for the care of the child and to cope with the family problems created by a sick child requiring much attention from the mother. He can also inform the parents of their eligibility for financial assistance, encourage them to apply if that is necessary, tell them how and where to apply, phone the worker in the welfare agency to make an appointment, and help them to prove their eligibility if they request or need that assistance.

Preparing an Ineligible Client for Referral. From the beginning of an intake interview, the worker may recognize factors that might keep the client from being eligible, such as living outside the geographical area served by the agency, or failing to meet income, age, or other requirements for service. As soon as it becomes apparent that the client is ineligible, or that the agency does not provide service for the main problem, the worker should begin to prepare the client to obtain the service of another agency. It is often important to keep him from continuing to tell the story that he will have to retell at the appropriate agency.

No matter what the worker does, there will probably be some disappointment, even anger, when the client learns that the agency cannot help him. Tact, on the part of the aide, is required in such cases. Often it takes a lot of effort for a client to come to an agency and to bring himself to the point where he can ask for help. To learn that the agency cannot help him may be very difficult. *The social-service aide should be sensitive to the client's plight. It is the worker's job to be patient with the client who responds angrily to being turned down.*

Appealing the Ineligibility Decision. If the client feels that he is being unjustly treated by the aide or his agency, there may be some way to help the client appeal the decision. The worker should be aware of the procedures for appealing, and should be ready to interpret these to the client, to offer him help in making an appeal, or to suggest that he seek the

help of groups (such as a welfare recipients' league) that specialize in protecting the rights of applicants. If the client wants to talk to someone higher up, the worker should be prepared to arrange this interview or to direct him to the higher-level staff member. This request is not a personal insult to the worker, and it should not be interpreted as such by the aide.

Client protests of this sort should be regarded as *healthy*, and should be courteously handled. A client who feels that he has been given a fair opportunity is better able to use other resources that are offered.

Knowledge of Community Agencies. Considerable knowledge of community agencies is necessary if referral is to be skillful and helpful. To begin with, particularly in a large city, it is difficult not only for the clients, but for workers as well, to have a full knowledge of available social resources. This involves more than having a city directory of social agencies.

Most cities or counties do have a directory published by an association to which many agencies belong - a welfare council or council of social agencies. If there is such a directory, the aide should familiarize himself with it. In addition, some neighborhoods in large cities have guides to agencies serving neighborhood people. If there are such guides available and they are helpful in the neighborhood he serves, the aide should obtain a copy and become acquainted with it.

Developing a Resource File. Beyond these useful listings, the worker will probably need to develop his own resource file, one that is specially compiled for the aide's clientele. It is simply not enough to know that an agency exists and that it serves a certain client group. The aide must know whether services are actually or immediately available, or if there is a waiting list of eligible clients for services. The worker must know during what hours services are offered, whether workers speak the foreign language that some of his clients might require, etc.

The aide must understand each agency and the way it works. Otherwise, he will not be able to make proper referrals. The best way to achieve this understanding is to visit each agency, talk with the workers, find out what it is doing, and how clients can use the services of the agency. It is important that aides establish a good working relationship with the workers to whom they will be making referrals. If possible, it will help for aides to meet other workers in person, rather than just over the phone. Above all, the aide must try to imagine that he is the client using the agency so that he will be able to help clients prepare themselves for this contact.

Form of Resource File. Once the worker has information about an agency, including his reactions and impressions, he should *write it down*. He cannot keep all this information in his head. The aide should make a directory of services, perhaps a loose-leaf notebook, a telephone book, address book, a card file, or whatever else he finds convenient to use. The information about each agency should include such items as:

- Name, address, and telephone number of agency.
- Name, title, office number, and phone extension of person or persons to whom referrals are made.
- Hours the agency is open and when various services are provided. (For example, a welfare agency may have a shelter open at all times, but its office for making public assistance applications is only open during daytime hours, Monday through Friday.)
- Eligibility, including important facts about special groups served (age, income, residence, etc.).
- Types of problems handled or services offered.
- Public transportation routes to the agency.
- Foreign languages spoken by workers.
- General impressions.

In organizing a directory, the aide can use subject or problem headings. For example, file information about agencies dealing with housing problems together. Or the aide may find it easier to list all agencies alphabetically. In this case, the worker will have to remember the exact names of agencies.

Resource Data Communication. A resource file is no good unless it is up to date. It is very discouraging for a client to be sent to an agency for services which were available last month but have been discontinued. Every few months, if the worker is not constantly in contact with an agency, he should call the intake worker of the agencies to which he makes referrals and inquire about shifts in services, new services, hours, etc.

While an aide may want to keep a resource file that is easiest for him to handle, information about resources also should be shared throughout the unit and recorded on a central unit file, if possible. If an individual worker learns about a new service or a new group becomes eligible for an old service, he should spread the word systematically to other workers. This can be done either by an office memo, at a staff meeting, or in some other way generally used in the agency for sharing such information.

Referral - a Brokerage Service. Telling a client about a service is not the same as making a referral; the task of referral is seldom that simple. Referral is a *brokerage service* in which the social-service worker sees that the client and the needed service get together.

It is often necessary to work with a client for some time befor the client (and sometimes the worker) sees the need for a certain service. An example might be psychological care for a child who is constantly causing trouble in school. It is not simply that the client lacks a knowledge of these services, but rather, that he needs to be helped to see that the child needs such care.

On the other hand, the problem may be a matter of eligibility and of making sure that the client and his problem fit the agency services. Sometimes there is no resource for the client. Or the problem may be to exert pressure as a worker, or to encourage a supervisor, the agency, or organized groups in the community, including groups of clients, to influence the agency to expand its services or make them available to new client groups.

It may be necessary not only to help the client see the need for a service, but also to keep reassuring him of its ability to help him or his need for it, even after he is in touch with the agency. The aide may have to confer with workers in other agencies, not only to let them know that the client will be coming to the agency, but to learn about the contact he makes and ways in which the local staff may be able to encourage the client's best use of the services.

In making referrals, the aide should learn what other agencies need to know about a client. Aides should be able to describe a client's problems clearly and concisely in a way that will be most helpful to workers in the other agency. The aide need not describe all the details of his contact, but only what the other workers need to know in order to avoid having the client and the workers rehash information the original aide could have supplied.

Normally, *an aide will not make a referral* (unless it affects the client's health and safety or that of others) *unless he has the client's permission. The aide must ask him if it is all right to tell the other worker about the problems that the aide and client have been discussing.* Often a referral serves as an introduction of the client to the other agency. On the other hand, it is preferable to have the client make as many of the arrangements as possible with the other agency, for it offers him the chance to exercise his independence. In that case, and ideally, an aide's job is to help him to anticipate what his contact with the other agency will be like.

HOME VISITING

In addition to the individual services aides perform within the agency, they will probably be visiting some clients in their homes.

Reasons for a Home Visit. There are many possible reasons for home visits, depending, of course, on the agency in which the aide works. If the client is old and/or ill, intake may be conducted in the home. An agency dedicated to providing service will extend itself and consider the convenience of the client rather than that of the agency. It may, in terms of time, be more efficient to conduct interviews in the office. However, both because of what can be learned from a home visit, and the feeling of the client about a worker coming to him, the advantage of such a visit cannot be measured in terms of time.

Another reason for a home visit may be to accommodate a client who would otherwise have to bring a number of small children with her to the office. Or, if the problem is one related to lack of household equipment or rundown housing, one look is worth a thousand words of description. The home visit is important in understanding how a family functions, how well the parents are able to run the home, and the interaction among various family members. The worker may also be able to meet other family members, such as teen-agers, who may find it difficult to talk openly in an office.

Behavior in a Client's Home. While office interviews should be relaxed and informal, home visiting is likely to be even less businesslike. Even though an aide is there on agency business to find out some facts, or to get something accomplished, he should be prepared to chat, or to accept a cup of coffee, allowing the client to be the host or hostess. This helps the client feel that she is giving, rather than always *taking* the services the aide provides.

Take time to chat with others in the home or with friends who drop in. Remember, it's the client's home, and neighbors may drop in - in which case, workers have to interrupt or discontinue their discussion.

The social-service aide should either be invited by the client, or ask and receive his permission to come. *Aides have no automatic right of entry into a client's home*. They should always make sure that they never undertake an assignment in which a person's privacy is not respected. Workers hardly contribute to a person's sense of worth or his feelings of independence if he feels that even his home is not his own.

When an aide visits in a home, he may observe behavior and conditions that may upset him. Sometimes, if a house is in utter disarray, the worker may not approve of the client's homemaking. The apartment may be extremely dirty, and the hallways may reek with foul odors.

It may be that part of the work with a client will involve helping in changing some of the observed behavior. One good example would be severe physical punishment of children, or even child neglect.

But workers will never be able to help the client to change if they display a critical attitude in his home. This does not mean that aides cannot be frank with clients, when they are discussing problems, but *aides must learn to control themselves*. Aides may be terribly upset by severe overcrowding and vermin - and should be. The client may ask the social worker to support his reactions to the dilapidated condition of the building, but this is very different from delivering a sermon on cleanliness.

While home visits are more relaxed, their purpose should not be forgotten. Once again, an aide is a worker with an assignment and no longer simply a friend. If the aide fails to address himself to the problems for which the client has sought help from the agency, he will be visiting neither as a friend nor as an aide.

CONCRETE SERVICES TO CLIENTS

Providing *concrete services* is sometimes looked upon as requiring less skill than *talking services*. However, provision of concrete services requires considerable judgment and skill and cannot be performed in a routine manner. Often the offering of concrete services is accompanied by considerable talking and counseling.

Deciding when to provide a service is an important judgment. Generally, the aide should consider himself an *enabler*. He helps clients to do things for themselves, to make use of some opportunity or resource, such as a clinic or a camp for the children. He backs up clients, helping them to do those things that need doing. This may take the form of verbal encouragement or advice and suggestions. Or it may involve physically doing something with the client.

Escort Service. One thing a worker can *do* is to accompany the client, or arrange for someone else to go with him, in order to increase the likelihood of his making the best use of services or using them at all. Escort service *enables* the client to keep his appointment at a clinic, to visit a sick

child in a mental hospital some distance away, etc.

Why would a client need an escort? He might be old or have difficulty traveling because of physical or mental disability. In this case, the escort can actually help to assure his safety. The client may be a newcomer to the city, unfamiliar with the language and with systems of transportation. In such a case, escorting him one time can serve to teach him how to get around better or to get there by himself the next time.

The escort can also act as an interpreter at the clinic or the family service agency. The client may not be able to express himself because of lack of education or insecurity in a large, complex office. Or the client may be facing a very difficult situation, such as visiting a dying relative. In these cases, the escort may go along to provide emotional support.

In many of these cases, the escort may only be necessary for a first, difficult trip, but in others, escorting the patient will have to be continued for several trips.

In providing escort services, the aide should not hesitate to act for the client if he actually needs it, or seems unable to talk or to assert himself. But - *never act for the client unless he cannot do it himself.* It is best for him to do the talking, and ask for what he wants. The companionship and presence of the aide may be just enough support for him to carry this off successfully.

The aide can use the opportunity to learn more about how his client functions in the community, in contrast to how he presents himself in the aide's office. Also, serving as an escort will enable the aide to familiarize himself with a different social agency and to learn, to some extent, what it is like to be a client rather than a worker from another agency.

Shopping. Another *concrete service* may be to shop with the client to help him get the most for his money. If this service is required of aides, inservice training should deal with consumer habits.

In addition to general consumer know-how, the worker needs to be familiar with the shopping resources in the community. This can be done by establishing and maintaining contact with local social-action groups that are concerned with consumer problems. If shopping is one of an aide's assignments, his name should be on the mailing lists of all local consumer-service agencies.

Child Care. What to do with children while their parents handle family matters away from the home? This is an ever-

present problem in the slums of our cities. If the social-service aide has a continuing relationship with a family, the aide should be prepared, at some point, to help the mother work out long-range care for the children. This may take such form as nursery school, day care, or Head Start. But, in a pinch, it may be necessary for the worker to stay with the children while the mother is on an important errand.

Child care is never wasted staff time.[7] First, it really convinces the client of the agency's desire to be of help. Second, it provides an opportunity to observe home life, which should help the aide in working with the client.

It is probably unnecessary to remind workers that they should merely be a stand by for the mother, rather than to try to bring about any changes in family routines, no matter how urgently they may be needed. Aides should, therefore, get careful instructions from the mother concerning needs of all the children they will be caring for, including any special problems, such as care for a sick child. Do not create confusion and undermine the mother's role by failing to carry out her instructions. *Once again, respect the client's privacy and authority in his or her own home.*

LIMITATIONS OF INDIVIDUAL SERVICES

It is sometimes preferable to work with persons on a one-to-one basis. For example, the client who comes to an agency with a problem that gives him embarrassment may feel more comfortable talking in private with only one person. Indeed, it is hard for some people to talk about their problems with any outsiders. A person who feels particularly unloved or especially unhappy at the time will probably profit from a contact in which he is the sole object of a worker's concern - in contrast to his being one of a group of persons served by the worker.

The Group as the Preferred Unit of Contact. There are some very good reasons, based on efficiency or on offering better service, for using group, rather than individual, services. For example, certain kinds of activities, such as explaining rules and regulations in public housing, or how to get information required of everyone who applies for public assistance, can be easily handled in a group of clients. Working with a group will save the worker's time, and sometimes the questions or problems that one client raises will help another to learn what is expected, required, or offered.

Sometimes a person's problems stem from loneliness or are the result of his inability to get along with others in a group - the family group, his neighbors, a community group. In those

cases, the best service, or at least an important service, would be to offer him a chance to practice or to iron out his way of getting along with others; or to give him a little extra push in getting together with others, if he is shy and slow to make contacts outside the home. Such group experiences with recreation, community education, etc., are helpful for newcomers to the city.

Sometimes the group is helpful in showing persons that others have problems like them. People may feel less bad-off or less evil, perhaps, if others are in the same circumstances. The group is also a *reality* situation, for it may help the worker to see how the client behaves in a group, which is more normal or more like everyday life than the worker-client interview. The group also provides a chance for the client to practice changes in behavior in a *real* situation.

Social Action. Sometimes, the agency works with a number of individuals who have the same problems. These can perhaps be handled on an individual basis, but it is less efficient and less permanent to do so. For example, if many of the clients of a neighborhood service center have similar housing problems such as no heat, rat infestation, or peeling plaster, workers can help them to handle complaints individually - and sometimes an emergency such as no heat in winter needs immediate individual attention.

Problems like these continue to happen to many individuals unless some pressure (such as a group of tenants complaining to city-rent agencies or conducting a rent strike) forces a landlord to make the repairs, or to provide the missing services to a whole building or group of buildings. If many clients find shopping prices in the neighborhood high, then individual budgeting won't help much. If a group of residents complains to the management and shows where prices are higher than in other stores in the city, or (as a last resort) pickets in front of the store or boycotts it, the prices may go down. These and other problems can only be solved through organized activities.

As has been shown in this unit, there are many individual assistance skills an entry-level social and economic service aide must acquire to become an effective help to the clients he serves.

STUDENT LEARNING ACTIVITIES

- View the film *Low View from a Dark Shadow* and discuss what attitudes you feel social-service workers should have about their jobs.
- Develop a list of the important factors to keep in mind when communicating with a client on his first contact

with a social-service agency.

- Role-play as a social-service aide interviewing a client who is asking for financial help. Each student should have an opportunity to be both the aide and client.

- Debate the statement: *Social-service aides should solve the client's problem for him, and not let the client choose his own solution.*

- Write a short essay on this question: *When asking clients questions, what affect do you feel jargon and prying has upon the client-aide relationship?*

- Role-play the following individual assistance skills in a simulated social-service agency:

  - intake
  - referral
  - information giving
  - screening
  - home visiting

- In small groups, discuss how you would tactfully tell a client that he or she is not eligible for the services of your particular agency.

- Visit a local social and economic service agency and interview a worker concerning the individual assistance skills he uses with clients.

TEACHER MANAGEMENT ACTIVITIES

- Show the film *Low View from a Dark Shadow*, and discuss with the class how the attitudes that social-service aides have towards clients affects the whole aide-client relationship.

- Have the class develop a list of the important factors to consider when communicating with a client on his first call to a social-service agency.

- Set up role-playing assignments with social-service aides interviewing clients in need of financial and/or emotional help. Each student should be allowed to role-play as a client and as an aide.

- Arrange to have the class debate such statements as: *Social-service aides should solve the client's problem for him, and not let the client choose his own solution.*

- Assign an essay on the following question: *When asking clients questions, what effect do you feel jargon and prying have upon the client-aide relationship?*

- Supervise role-playing exercises in the use of the following individual assistance skills in a simulated social-service agency:

  intake — referral — information giving

  screening — home visiting

- Divide the class into small groups, and have the students discuss how they would tell a client he or she is not eligible for the services of their agency.

- Arrange to have the students visit a local social-service agency and interview a worker concerning the individual assistance skills he uses with clients.

RESOURCES

Low View from a Dark Shadow (Movie, 16mm, rental), Indiana University A-V Center, 1970.

How to Conduct the Appraisal Interview (Programmed Instruction Book), Metromedia Analearn, 1970.

Interview, Social Worker (Audio Tape, purchase), Imperial International Learning, 1969.

Handling Complaints and Grievances (phonodisc, purchase), American Management Association, 1966.

Understanding Human Behavior: A Guide for Health Workers, M. E. Milliken, Delmar Publishers, 1969.

Successful Living, E. M. Peterson, Allyn and Bacon, 1968.

Permanent Poverty; An American Syndrome, B. B. Seligman, Quadrangle Books, 1968.

Unit 6

INFLUENCES ON PEOPLE

Here are the contents of Unit 6 of the Social-Services group. We suggest a careful reading of it before you read the text.

INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES 91

CONTENTS 91

Introduction 91
- Motivation from Within
- Balancing Inner Needs and External Demands
- Need for Understanding Behavior
- Behavior Influenced by Goals

Physiological Motives for Behavior 93
- Biological Drives - Survival Mechanisms
- Biological Drives - Balancing Mechanisms

Physical Needs of Man 94
- Hunger Drive
- Thirst Drive
- Need for Air
- Fatigue and the Need for Sleep
- Sexual Drive
- Pain as a Drive
- Temperature as an Influence on Behavior

Psychological and Social Motives for Behavior 97
- Psychological and Social Drives
- Social Factors in Motivation
- Values as Motives
- Interests as Motives
- Psychological and Social Motives in Balance

STUDENT LEARNING ACTIVITIES 99

TEACHER MANAGEMENT ACTIVITIES 100

RESOURCES 101

Unit 6

INFLUENCES ON PEOPLE

INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

1. Ability to understand how social and physical needs serve to direct behavior.
2. Ability to display a knowledge of the balancing processes that serve to regulate people's needs.
3. Ability to distinguish between the physical and social needs of individuals.
4. Ability to compare the effects of physical drives with social drives on influencing people.
5. Ability to restate the needs, interests, values, and emotions that influence the way people behave.
6. Ability to apply in a job situation, knowledge of the various factors which influence people.

CONTENT

INTRODUCTION

No matter how carefully the growth and development of a person's abilities and other personality characteristics are traced, we still need to understand the motivation behind people's acts. Social-service workers, like everyone else, need to know what forces cause them to do what they do. They should also be aware of what other forces may stop them from using their abilities to the full. In this unit, we will explore the pattern of motives that influence the way people behave.

Motivation from Within. Social-service workers should realize that people do more than just respond to stimulation in their immediate environment. Our behavior is more than a mechanical reaction to such external forces. We all have drives and needs which in their own right propel us to action. These motivating factors all affect each of us in a unique way. Consequently, we perceive the world through our own individual pattern of values. Even the outside stimuli that act upon us are in turn affected by the patterns of drives and needs which are active within us at any moment.

Balancing Inner Needs and External Demands. As human beings, we are constantly trying to adjust to life. Some of us are more successful than others. This adjustment is a constant process of attempting to balance our inner needs with the demands placed on us by our physical and social environment. No human can fully escape some degree of frustration and stress in trying to maintain this balance. Our mental health is determined not so much by the amount of frustration and conflict in our lives, but by whether or not we deal with these factors in a realistic and constructive way. Students of the field of social-service need to ask these questions:

- Why do people search for food, water, or a place to rest when they are hungry, thirsty, or tired?
- Why do some men obey the law and others defy it?
- Why do some students energetically apply themselves to their school work while other students prefer to loaf?
- Why do some people have to work at two or three jobs, while others are content to be idle?

The answer to each of these *whys* involves a problem of motivation.

Need for Understanding Behavior. Knowing why people behave is useful in all areas of public service. The experienced teacher makes learning easier and more effective by relating it to the students' needs. The manager in any social-service group is frequently called upon to apply his knowledge of human motives. He finds this knowledge necessary in his attempts to meet employee's basic personal needs, preserve agency peace, and maintain the delivery of services to the public at a high peak of efficiency. People in the social services especially need to understand why people behave as they do. To some extent, we all appraise almost unconsciously the needs, interests, values, and motives that influence the way people behave. But when we say that an individual is motivated in certain ways, what do we really mean? What is actually happening, biologically (physically) and psychologically, within the

individual? These questions are explored in the following sections.

Behavior Influenced by Goals. With the exception of simple reflex behavior, definite internal conditions called motives serve to direct people toward certain goals. Motives can be inborn or learned, or a combination of the two. If a person thinks back over his own behavior during the day, he will see that all of it is directed toward some goal, if only the enjoyment of a rest from pursuing other goals. When we wake up, it may take a strong motive for us to leave our comfortable beds. Perhaps hunger pangs will win out, aided by the smell of coffee or bacon.

A more complex aim for which one might be striving is getting to school on time. This in turn involves such goals as learning about this unit, graduating from high school, and the eventual long-range goal of entering a career. In this example, it might be an entry-level position in social-service. A long-range goal then, of studying this unit is to secure employment in social-service. Thus, as can be seen, human motivation is highly complex.

The first part of this unit deals with physical motives; that is, those bodily needs such as hunger and thirst. The second half of this unit will consider the needs learned through experiences in living; the so-called *psychological* and *social* motives of behavior.

PHYSIOLOGICAL MOTIVES FOR BEHAVIOR

Biological Drives - Survival Mechanisms. Physical drives originate in the bodily needs of the human being, and consequently are often referred to as *biological drives*. These drives motivate the behavior of every human being in directions that are meant to lead to satisfaction of those needs. For example, the hunger drive motivates people to seek food which is necessary for survival. Failure to satisfy biological drives will result in impaired health, or even death.

It is generally agreed that the biological drives are inborn. They are present in every living organism from birth. All men have the same physical needs for survival. Despite their importance, the biological drives are by no means thoroughly understood.

The following distinctions should be made:

- *motive* - any condition of the human that affects his readiness to start a sequence of behavior;

- *drive* - an aroused condition of the human;
- *goal* - an end-state or reward toward which the motivated sequence is directed, and by which the sequence of actions is completed.

Biological Drives - Balancing Mechanisms. Though they vary in intensity, all of the biological drives are balancing or regulatory mechanisms which help maintain the physical balance of the individual. This tendency of the human body to maintain an internal biological stability is a result of the activity of the nervous system and other biological factors, as well as certain chemical glands. Whenever an internal state of the body is disturbed, tensions are produced which motivate the goal-seeking activity of the individual. That behavior ceases only when the end-state (reward) is attained and biological stability is restored. Failure of the human body to maintain this internal balance will eventually result in sickness or death.

Of course such biological needs can never be satisfied permanently. Man's nervous system is capable of perceiving very small physical changes. These internal changes serve as clues to a change in his biological balance. He can, following such clues, anticipate bodily needs (such as changed environment, medical care, etc.) to prevent further discomfort. This tendency is present in every human being. It involves an active effort to establish a physical environment that is as constant as possible.

Now that the physical drives have been shown to be a balancing process, we can examine the specific biological drives, and their influence on man.

PHYSICAL NEEDS OF MAN

Hunger Drive. The need for food has probably received more scientific attention than any other. Yet, the answer to the question of what makes people feel hungry is still something of a mystery. The need for food rests upon the fact that food substances are used up in the blood. When the food level reaches a certain point, man eats just enough to satisfy his physical need for food. This drive is self balancing, since people normally do not eat either too little or too much at one time. While it was once thought that stomach contractions produced the need for food, evidence has shown that this is not the case. Human beings have reported being hungry just after eating a big meal. Most surprisingly, people who have had their stomachs surgically removed have reported normal hunger pains! There is no easy answer to explain hunger feelings.

Some findings suggest that the origin is chemical in nature. It may be that a number of complex mechanisms result in the hunger drive. One fact that cannot be denied, is that hunger can direct behavior. This behavior usually results in man getting food. His internal physical state is balanced by eating when hungry.

Thirst Drive. Man can go for weeks without food, but he can survive for only a few days without water. Dryness of the mouth and throat contributes to thirst. But the craving for thirst can be satisfied only in part by relieving the source of dryness in the mouth. Just as stomach contractions provide only a part of the hunger drive, so dryness in the throat provides only one component of the thirst drive.

The thirst drive is a regulatory function which strives to maintain the water content in the body at a constant level. There are many factors which contribute to this complex bodily drive, including: nervous system responses; dryness of the mouth, throat, tongue; and the concentration of salt and other chemical substances in the body fluids.

Much more study needs to be done before a complete understanding of all the factors involved in the thirst drive are known.

Need for Air. The need for air is the most intense of all our physical drives. This need for air must be continually satisfied. Serious damage can occur to the human nervous system if the brain is without oxygen for as brief a period as one minute. A lack of air can result in what is called *oxygen starvation*. When oxygen starvation occurs in a high altitude, a unique sort of drunkenness or confusion results from the lack of carbon dioxide. The person so affected may lose control and shout, fight, or burst into tears. Memory is impaired and the senses function poorly. The person may be weak in the legs, yet feel perfectly confident in his abilities - often failing to recognize the seriousness of his condition, although behavior is drastically influenced.

Fatigue and the Need for Sleep. The need for sleep seems to depend upon many factors such as chemical balance in the muscles of the body, injury to certain parts of the brain; learned responses. Even cultural factors influence this basic need. In Mexico, for example, the national culture influences most Mexicans to have a daily *siesta*.

Studies have shown that humans begin to function less efficiently the longer they go without sleep. Some simple tasks can be accomplished by people who have gone for as long as 100 hours without sleep. However, for any complex task the

individual's performance drops off significantly after 30 hours without sleep. With few exceptions, most individuals require from six to nine hours of sleep daily. While this relatively constant amount of sleep appears to be based on bodily needs, more work needs to be done in this area.

Sexual Drive. Although sexual drives are physical in origin, they have profound effects on man's social environment. The restrictions or taboos of society upon the various forms of sexual expression are firmly rooted in our laws and social conventions. Although the sex drive is necessary to the survival of the human race, it is not absolutely essential to any single individual. But behavioral scientists tend to agree that sexual satisfaction is conducive to achieving the best physical and psychological health.

The sexual drive in the male appears to be governed primarily by substances produced in his body called hormones. These hormones are responsible for maintaining a relatively constant drive state. Unlike many animals which mate only during periodic cycles, man is capable of mating throughout his grown life. Most men reach the peak of the sexual urge in their late teens and this peak begins to decline in the early twenties. This falling off of sexual urge is again related to a decline in the quantity of hormones secreted. However, social factors do influence the sexual level of each man. Contributing factors do include family life, mate, and career interests.

The sexual drive in the female is much more complex than that of the male, and the glandular and social basis of the sexual drive in the female is also much more complex. The female hormonal secretion is influenced by monthly changes in her bodily functions. The female can only become pregnant during a few days of each month. In the female this period usually occurs about halfway between her menstrual periods.

Social factors are even more important in regulating the sex drive of women than of men. Despite the current women's liberation movement which seeks equal opportunity for all, regardless of sex, the fact remains that many females in our culture are brought up with a prejudice against sex. Many girls are taught that sex is *bad*, or that the sexual drive should be ignored. These concepts, the result of centuries of society's established rules of behavior, influence how a young woman feels about sex even after she is married. Many studies have shown that unpleasant sexual experiences, as well as fear of sex can make a woman unable to adjust to her mate, even though she may be perfectly normal biologically.

Pain as a Drive. Pain can also serve to motivate a person,

as anyone who has touched a hot pan can testify. Pain has important physical significance since most harmful situations produce pain as well as injury. Therefore, in seeking to avoid pain, a person also tends to avoid being hurt. The need to avoid pain, and to help protect others from it, has become one of the most important motivating forces in the history of man. It might be the reason why many people chose to work in public safety or social-service occupations.

Pain is often closely related to the general emotional setting in which it occurs. People who are having problems in trying to adjust to life often respond to pain differently.

Temperature as an Influence on Behavior. The reactions of our body to temperature differences are separate responses. People do not usually want to be too hot or too cold. Again, our body constantly strives to keep itself regulated. When a person feels cold, bodily activity is stimulated. This increase in activity warms the person up. When he feels hot, perspiration begins to cool the body. Internal physical changes occur. The arteries at the surface of the body increase in size, allowing more blood to be exposed to the outer surface of the body. The opposite occurs when one is cold. The blood flows into deeper tissues where it will not be exposed to the cold. All of these changes occur automatically.

PSYCHOLOGICAL AND SOCIAL MOTIVES FOR BEHAVIOR

Psychological and Social Drives. It should be readily apparent that the biological drives have a direct and fundamental effect on human motivation. However, it must not be forgotten that man is most importantly a social animal. Other individuals have to be considered in almost everything a man does. In fact, most of life's joys and sorrows are shared with, or caused by relationships with other people.

The origins of psychological or social motives are as complex and difficult to understand to a psychologist as to the layman. Two main possibilities exist for the origin of human social motives as we find them:

- *Social motives are innate or inherited.* Man everywhere seems to have certain psychological needs which he expresses to other people in his particular culture. Examples of such needs include the need for security and the need for approval. Although these needs are sometimes overwhelmed by other needs, their satisfaction is nonetheless essential to an individual's healthy development. Are these needs present at birth? The viewpoint that social motives are inherited is not widely accepted today. A more accepted belief is the following:

Social motives are acquired in the course of social behavior. People often do things to please other people. Humans learn to attach reward values to formerly neutral objects. Previously neutral objects become symbols of rewards. Anyone who has ever studied for *grades* or worked for *money* will attest to that. Symbolic rewards can take the shape of a calm or soothing voice that once comforted an individual. Such behavior may continue to assume an award value in later life. This behavior was acquired through his early experiences with other people.

By a similar process a human learns to avoid certain people, words, or objects which have come to be associated with painful experiences. Even when one is unaware of the reasons why he is being rewarded or punished, the very process influences his behavior. Behavior which is rewarded is more likely to occur again in the future than unrewarded behavior. All socialized human beings seek out and are motivated by symbolic rewards of some kind.

Social Factors in Motivation. The need for social approval is present to some extent in all humans. A social-service worker needs to be aware of this. Individuals seek social approval not only from co-workers, but also from the people with whom they come into contact. Different cultures exhibit different social motives because people in different cultures learn different values in relation to their local society. One's tone of voice, or even his choice of words may be culturally influenced. For instance, when an American worker might say, *"Be good!"*, the French worker might say, *"Be wise!"*, the Scandinavian says, *"Be friendly"*, and the Apache Indian says, *"No, that is not the Apache way."* As can be seen, each culture has its own way of influencing an individual's behavior.

Values as Motives. Each of us is motivated by his own personal value system. It is important to remember that individuals have different sets of values. Human motives are often classified according to the importance they have in one's life. A person's value system may change as he acquires new experiences.

There are those who disagree with the values of the establishment. They tend to seek social approval within a segment of society that believes in the same values. Occasionally, such groups will help to break through the apathy of the people. Social and political change is often started by such groups. Group values can, therefore, have an important influence on society.

Interests as Motives. Every human has interests in someone or something. Interest is a pleasurable experience that

accompanies some behavior. Usually, one becomes interested in the things one can do well and enjoy doing. However, an individual is seldom seriously interested in any activity in which he repeatedly fails. Those individuals planning on working in the educational field should be particularly aware of this. How interested can an individual be in staying in school if he has only experienced failure or ridicule? The development of individual interests - and the degree to which these interests motivate human behavior, is directly related to our need for self-approval.

Curiosity is a closely related need. Man, like many animals, appears to be naturally curious. Man's motive to explore sometimes gets him in trouble. For example, teachers sometimes discourage curiosity. Curiosity, however, is a valuable motivating force when it is properly channeled, and can lead to new discoveries and the advancement of mankind.

Psychological and Social Motives in Balance. Previously, in this unit, the concept of the balancing mechanisms in the physical motives was explored. Man's psychological and social motives operate as balancing mechanism in much the same fashion.

Excessive psychological needs compel a person to satisfy these drives. The individual is motivated to create and maintain a stable social environment - one in which such needs as love, security, approval, prestige, and knowledge, are fostered and developed in such a way as to maintain this *constant state*. The adult can satisfy his biological needs fairly easily in today's society; it would seem that now the primary driving force behind human behavior appears to be the drive to satisfy his psychological needs.

It is not that easy today to satisfy all the psychological or social goals. There is more to life than just reducing tensions. As a part of growing and developing, new tensions are constantly being created, making the balancing mechanisms a very complex model of behavior. How we deal with these tensions will influence our individual behavior. Rather than constantly trying to escape tensions, the mature adult tries to cope with them, or at least tries to reduce them by channeling them toward new and higher goals. Life without experiencing *any* needs would be pretty dull.

STUDENT LEARNING ACTIVITIES

- Through individual study (for example, reading programmed texts such as the *Biological Basis of Behavior: a Program)*, explore articles on motivation and needs.
- Discuss in small groups the meaning of such terms as: physical and social needs, goals, and motives.

- View films such as, *Unconcious Motivation*, and *Crisis in the classroom*. Show how motives influenced the behavior patterns of the individuals portrayed.

- Depict a typical situation by role-playing, as for example, a client talking to a social-service aide and applying for financial assistance. Illustrate how cultural differences can influence psychological or socially learned motives.

- Prepare a paper on the reasons why a person is a better social service employee if he understands motivational factors.

- Arrange for a meeting with a psychologist or guidance counselor and ask him questions about the differences between physical and psychological motives.

- Write a short summary of physical motives, explaining the human balancing mechanisms.

- Write a short summary of the psychological, or social motives discussed herein, explaining the human balancing mechanisms.

- Discuss in small groups, those motives you consider inherited, and those you consider learned.

- Have class discussions, led by social-service workers, about the reasons why it is important to understand motivational factors on the job.

TEACHER MANAGEMENT ACTIVITIES

- Arrange for small group discussions of key points in this unit, for example the physical and social needs, goals, and motives.

- Divide the class into small groups and conduct role-playing situations, such as: A client is talking to a social-service aide about his eligibility for financial assistance. Show how cultural differences influence psychological or social motives.

- Invite experts in the fields of human behavior to talk to your class. Have them discuss topics such as the biological and psychological motives for behavior.

- Have the students write short essays on the physical and/or psychological motives and how they direct behavior.

- Encourage individual study in the area of motivation and needs.

- Show films on motivation, such as *Unconscious Motivation* and *Crisis in the Classroom*. Have students talk about movies they have seen illustrating how needs influence behavior.

- Assign a unit paper to discuss reasons why understanding motivational factors can make one a better social service employee.

RESOURCES

Biology, Samuel Rapport and Helen Wright (editors), Simon & Schuster, 1971.

Introduction to Learning and Motivation, William C. Brown Co., 1970.

Crisis in the Classroom (Movie, 16mm), Doubleday, 1968.

Introduction to Psychology, 2nd Edition, Norman L. Munn et. al., Houghton Mifflin Company, 1969.

Human Motivation: A Symposium, University of Nebraska, 1970.

Unconscious Motivation (Movie, 16mm), Associated Films.

Human Needs and Social Order, Ronald Fletcher, Shocken Books, 1969.

Biological Basis of Behavior: A Program, F. S. McGuigan, Prentice Hall, 1963.

Secondary Motivation, One, Personal Motives, Josef Cohen, Rand McNally, 1969.

Anthropomophic Criminal (Movie, 16mm, rental), Indiana University A-V Center, 1970.

The Structure of a Motive (Audio-tape, purchase), McGraw-Hill, 1967.

Unit 7

CROSS-CULTURAL SKILLS

Here are the contents of Unit 7 of the Social-Services group. We suggest a careful reading of it before you read the text.

INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES 105

CONTENTS 105

Introduction 105

Race and Culture 106
- Race
- Culture
- Cultural Change

Cross-Cultural Awareness 108
- Cultural Diversity
- Cultural Competition
- Feelings of Cultural Superiority
- Many Cultures or One Culture

Cross-Cultural Training 110
- Training Methods
- Community Description
- Critical Incidents
- Case Studies
- Situational Exercises
- Role-Playing
- Biographical Descriptions
- Nonverbal Communication Exercises
- Cross-Cultural Comparison Exercises

Objectives, Role, and Characteristics of the Effective Public Service Worker 113

Summary 113

STUDENT LEARNING ACTIVITIES 114

TEACHER MANAGEMENT ACTIVITIES 115

RESOURCES 116

Unit 7

CROSS-CULTURAL SKILLS

INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

1. Ability to differentiate between race and culture.
2. Ability to evaluate the effects culture has upon one's self, one's community, and one's country.
3. Ability to understand how cultural influences affect individual behavior.
4. Ability to communicate effectively with individuals from different cultures.
5. Ability to use cross-cultural training exercises to become more sensitive to cultural differences between and within groups.
6. Ability to acquire positive feelings for the worth and dignity of all individuals.

CONTENT

INTRODUCTION

An awareness of cultural differences and group behavior is necessary for two primary reasons:

- First of all, many individuals from all cultures found in the United States are employed in the area of public services, particularly at the county, state, and federal levels of public service. So the chances of coming into contact with people from different cultural backgrounds other than your own is great.

As an employer, the social service institutions have led the fight to insure equal opportunity for all, regardless of racial or ethnic background or sex. Consequently, the backbone of the social-service field is a richly varied and diversified one.

- Secondly, an entering employee should have knowledge of, and sensitivity for, different cultural backgrounds, since many fields in social-service bring entry-level employees into frequent and direct contact with cultures different than their own. Public servants need to acquire appropriate factual information about people of different cultures. They must realize the dignity, worth, and basic rights of all people.

Due to many complex reasons, such as poverty and general socio-economic conditions, minority cultures are focal points for social-service contact. Social welfare, neighborhood worker, probation, and correction service aides are a few examples of entry-level positions that often come into frequent contact with cultural minorities.

The purpose, therefore, of this section on cultural differences will be to translate these differences into a climate of healthy awareness to better the human condition for all.

RACE AND CULTURE

Before any discussion of cross-cultural skills can be made, the distinction between *race* and *culture* must be made.

Race. Mankind has been classified as having three primary divisions or races: Caucasian (white), Negroid (black), and Mongoloid (yellow or red). Skin color is a particular characteristic of race, as indicated by the colors in parentheses. Race is a biological concept. However, social attitudes affect the feelings individuals have about people of different races.

Human beings are all basically alike. Within this species, the term *race* applies to relatively large groups of persons who possess common hereditary traits. These racial subdivisions all come from the same species - *homo sapiens*.

Due to migrations and other mixing factors, there are no pure human races. In fact, there is probably more variability between different people within the same race than there is between races. It would be biologically correct to say that to some extent every man is a mixture or *hybrid*.

Racial purity has been a basis for claims of racial superiority.

Such claims display an ignorance of the historical development of man. Race is simply a term used to describe large groups of men with similar physical characteristics.

Culture refers to the man-made environment. It is his skills, tools, folkways, and customs. Culture can refer to a group of people, a nation, or a community.

The things or objects particular to a certain group are its *material culture*.

Ideas, beliefs, and attitudes incorporate *nonmaterial culture*. Value systems may be a nonmaterial element. Even the behavior patterns of certain people can be considered as cultural nonmaterial differences.

Cultural development is not dependent upon race. It is the total way of life of any society. Culture is the sum of all common experiences shared by individuals within a group.

Cultural Change. Cultures are not static, they grow and change. As they change, they affect man and society. Cultures spread and grow for a number of reasons. For example:

° Concepts such as time and language spread because of their *practical appeal*.

° The theory of evolution has grown because of its *intellectual appeal*.

° Movies, art, sculpture, and music spread because of their *artistic and sensory appeal*.

The rapid rate of *travel* today helps to foster cultural change. As more people travel to new places, they take their old ideas with them and pick up new ones from the places they visit. This process results in a *cross-cultural exchange*.

° *Geographical* factors may help or hinder cultural change. Mountain ranges and deserts may hinder cross-cultural fertilization. Rivers, roads, and airways, however, often foster cross-cultural experiences.

° The *political climate* of a country will affect cultural change. President Nixon's trip to China and Russia in 1972 was a good example of sharing cultural experiences.

° *Language* can help or hinder cultural spread.

° Even *war* can be a source of cultural change. Thousands of Americans were exposed to different cultures in World Wars I and II, Korea, and Vietnam.

All of these factors contribute to the changing nature of all cultures. Some change more slowly than others. Members of one culture might try to cling to the *old way of doing things*. They are comfortable and secure with a particular cultural style. One must be aware, however, that in a changing world there is no room for an unchanging culture.

CROSS-CULTURAL AWARENESS

Cultural Diversity. There are many cultures within America. Cultural diversity is one cause for prejudice. One's way of life is influenced by one's cultural foundation. Culture shapes an individual's ideas about life after death. It causes some men to wear a tie, some a bone on a string. Some people walk propped up on heels three inches high, others go barefoot. People stick metal rings through their earlobe, or nose. It is culture that determines these particular behavior patterns.

Cultural Competition. Cross-cultural experiences can lead to cooperation, competition, or conflict. If each group is cooperating, society usually has fewer problems. Competition can be beneficial, if the result is to bring about better service or improve efficiency. However, competition can be harmful when people from a particular culture are consistently the losers. When any individual group is unable to compete for jobs, houses, or a decent standard of living, the typical reaction is predictable. They reject competition and substitute force and violence to achieve goals.

Feelings of Cultural Superiority. Some people tend to believe that their group and culture is superior to all others. They feel that they have the best culture. If a stranger has different ways of behaving, some people will assume that the stranger is peculiar, threatening, or undesirable. People tend to view their own way of behaving as natural or normal. The result is that other people's ways are labeled unnatural or abnormal.

Another factor in forming attitudes of cultural superiority is a lack of objectivity. In many cases, individuals tend to judge another culture by their own standards, rather than the standards of the culture being judged. Their value judgments are therefore unnecessarily biased. This is not the correct way to evaluate another culture. The culture must be evaluated on its own terms, by answering the question, "Is it meeting the needs of its people?" In this manner one can come to appreciate the worth and dignity of every human being.

There are a number of reasons for the existence of culturally biased attitudes. Isolation can be a factor. People may grow

up in a small community and not be exposed to other cultures. The school may only reflect the local culture of the community. The child may only be taught the attitude of one culture through the educational system. Media may strengthen his cultural attitudes. Television, for example, might show Indians, or foreigners in ways which make them look ignorant, ridiculous in behavior, or stereotyped in dress, etc. One has only to think of the Lone Ranger's sidekick, Tonto; Charlie Chan; or Amos and Andy to understand how the media can influence cultural bias.

Many Cultures or One Culture? Contemporary opinion holds that the American melting pot did not melt. Rather, Americans - immigrants all - have tended to identify with their national citizenship by retaining their subnational affiliations as hyphenated Americans; i.e., Irish-American, Polish-American, Mexican-American, Chinese-American, etc. By largely rejecting integration into a single American group, and retaining segregation into distinctive groups, Americans have apparently decided upon separate cultures, rather than blending as a unit into a common mold and one culture.

Cultural pluralism in America essentially involves the retention of separate ethnic, geographic, and racial identities. These cultural differences are sometimes convenient categories for prejudicial labels.

The United States must be committed to the mixture of separate cultures as a significant value in our traditional way of life. A philosophical commitment to our stated constitutional and legislated ideals is not sufficient. Such a commitment in theory must necessarily be accompanied by an even greater commitment in practice lest our hallowed creed of *"Liberty and justice for all"* should become only a hollow sham. There is, as yet, no real unity within the diversity which our many cultural and ethnic groups represent. Instead, minorities still excluded from the mainstream of American society are striving to establish an identification and a feeling of pride in their own heritage. Simultaneously they are becoming increasingly more insistent on full-scale participation on equal terms in the ordinary affairs of American life. Prejudice and discrimination against cultural minorities continue to work against human fulfillment, but must be superseded by principled thought and equality.

The public service worker can play a significant role in regards to cross-cultural awareness. His relationships with people from different cultures than his own must be free of cultural bias or prejudice. There are many ways to learn about different problems that some cultures have. The following section on cross-cultural training exercises will deal with suggested activities designed to foster an awareness of these cultural differences.

CROSS-CULTURAL TRAINING

Once committed to the idea of cultural plurality, the question of cross-cultural training arises; training that is needed to examine the effects of mixing the separate cultures in American society.

The teacher is the key person in implementing such a program of cultural awareness. The most important ingredients for effective cross-cultural education are the attitudes and relationships of the students and teachers. The teacher and students must:

- Agree with the objectives and goals of cross-cultural training,
- Make personal commitments for the need and value of integrating cross-cultural education concepts in the classroom,
- Gain positive relationships with each other, in creating an environment for free discussion of feelings and emotions.

Recognizing that not all teachers are trained in cross-cultural programs, it is desirable to highlight various techniques designed to foster cross-cultural sensitivity.

Training Methods. A great many exercises have been developed especially for use in cross-cultural training. It would not be possible to represent them all in this unit. However, a number of exercises that have proven to be effective for cross-cultural training can be presented, showing their relationship to content and role-playing models. These exercises, particularly when used with the role-models, are the best method found so far for transmitting factual and relevant information in a form that is comprehensibly involving, and meaningful to the students.

These exercises are presented as examples of what might be done, with suggestions for developing similar exercises specifically designed for a social-service program. It would be a mistake to attempt to use many of the exercises given in their present form. It is the responsibility of the teacher to select those exercises that would be most suitable for his program. He should select the appropriate content for each exercise, and plan a program based on a logical, sequential, and developmental relationship among the various exercises.

Community Description. One cross-cultural exercise involves a definition of the local environment. This would be a general description of the entire community portrayed in the hypothetical social-service worker's role model. The community should

be quite typical of the kind of community in which the student thinks he will be working. This description should have these purposes:

- The primary purpose of the community description is to provide the trainees with a general orientation to the area, the people, the culture, etc., all seen through the eyes of a hypothetical social-service worker.
- A secondary purpose is to allow the student an opportunity to see how the perceptions, values, judgments, expectations, etc., which he has formed of another culture, compare with those of the other students.
- A third purpose is to provide the setting for intensive interpersonal involvement over issues that are significant in terms of the participants' future roles as social-service employees.

Critical Incidents. Some of the exercises can be based on the occurrence of a particular situation. Critical incidents logically follow the community description. They consist of situations that occur between the social-service worker and one or more of the persons represented in the role model, or between other persons in the role model. These are, of course, more specific than the community description, which provides a general background and framework for understanding the critical incident.

- The primary purpose of this exercise is to introduce the student to typical kinds of situations in which he will find himself as a social-service worker;
- Discussing the proper actions will allow him to explore his possible reactions to these situations;
- The other purposes mentioned for the community description exercise would apply here as well;
- Another purpose is to allow the students to discover how little they know about the culture, and how much and what kinds of things they need to learn.

Case Studies. Taking actual examples of social-service case studies to use as models for role-playing can be an effective training technique. Case studies should be taken from the role model, and are really extended critical incidents. Try giving more information about the situation, so that the student will have a better understanding of the various factors that should be taken into consideration. With the case study, more cultural background information can be introduced. It should be very effective as an extension of a critical incident that was particularly puzzling to the trainees. Brief

critical incidents can, of course, cover many more situations of different types in a short period of time, whereas the case study covers a particular situation in greater depth. Both should be used, and should be seen by the students as complementary.

Situational Exercises. Situational exercises are very similar to the critical incidents, except that the student actually assumes the role of the social-service worker in the situation, and behaves or reacts as he thinks the worker should. Other students play the roles of the other cultures in the situation. The student is given minimum information and is told nothing about the way he should perform the role of social-service worker. He is thus totally responsible for his behavior in the situation. As a result, he is intensely involved in assessing the effectiveness or appropriateness of this behavior.

The primary purpose of this exercise is to go beyond what the student says he would do in the critical incidents, to what he actually does in the situational exercise.

Role-Playing. Role-playing differs slightly from situational exercises. Now the student is playing the cultural role of another person. Or he is attempting to play the role of the social-service worker in a certain prescribed way. Students should have an opportunity to play both roles. Role-playing is most effective if it is an extension of a critical incident, a case study, or a situational exercise. Students can become more sensitive to different cultural roles in such exercises.

Role-playing can be used to show how a situation should or might be handled. It can also be used to test a person's reaction to a particular situation or behavior.

Biographical Descriptions. Knowledge about a particular person and his culture can be acquired from biographical data. Biographical descriptions are logical extensions of any of the foregoing exercises. They can be very effective if they involve a person who is perceived as being particularly antagonistic, puzzling, irrational, difficult to deal with, etc. The biographical description then provides some insight into the character, personality, beliefs, values, aims, ambitions, etc., of the person. These factors have often developed from his particular cultural background. The effect of religion, family traditions, social status, etc., on the person are revealed and provide the student with some understanding and acceptance of the person's behavior and attitudes.

Nonverbal Communication Exercises. Different cultures express

their feelings in different ways. Body language often reflects a particular culture. The use of nonverbal communication exercises is particularly useful after the trainees have begun to feel some competence in their apparent understanding of the verbal behavior of the various cultures portrayed in the role model, or any of the exercises described above. It presents another dimension of awareness and understanding that is essential to effective relationships, and provides the students with the basis for studying cross-cultural communications. Students become aware of more than just the verbal differences of the particular culture.

Cross-Cultural Comparison Exercises. Various exercises and methods are available for the analysis and comparison of cultures. These are useful when the students have enough data and understanding to begin making meaningful comparisons. They are probably most useful in providing the students with a model that can be used for studying the predominent cultures in their own community. If used correctly, such a model will help the new social-service worker avoid stereotyped reactions or viewing the culture only from his own cultural point of view.

OBJECTIVES, ROLE, AND CHARACTERISTICS OF THE EFFECTIVE PUBLIC SERVICE WORKER

Cross-cultural training is desirable to increase the student's understanding of the objectives of social-service work. He should be aware of his particular future goal and his role as a social-service worker in relation to these objectives. He should know about the characteristics that are disired or required in the beginning worker.

This understanding is achieved more effectively, however, if the analysis and definition of objectives, and the role and characteristics of the effective social-service worker are assigned as tasks to be completed by the students. Such exercises help to pull together and make even more personally relevant the understanding gained from cross-cultural experiences. The student should be able to put himself in the center of the role model and describe his role and relationships, his objectives, how he must perform his role, and what he needs to learn to perform his role effectively.

SUMMARY

In summary, one can see that the culture does influence individual behavior. The culture of an individual affects and influences his clothing, tools, and the material objects he uses. Culture also influences man's total behavior; e.g., goals,

attitudes, desires, etc. The extent of the influence that culture has on individuals is great.

Behavior is largely a result of the environment and living conditions of a society, such as: urban, suburban, ghetto, rural, etc. This environment is again reflected in the cultural patterns of the Black-Americans, Mexican-Americans, Indian-Americans, Chinese-Americans, and other racial or ethnic groups. *Transforming these cultural differences into a climate of healthy awareness and appreciation for the dignity of man is a worthwhile goal to which everyone should aspire.*

STUDENT LEARNING ACTIVITIES

° List the differences between racial and cultural characteristics of man.

° Discuss questions such as:

What is racial purity?
Does cultural enrichment increase I.Q. scores?

° Conduct a survey of students' attitudes toward a particular culture. Find out about the income and occupations of the students' parents first, and then compare the results from the attitude survey with the social and economic standing of the students' parents. Ask such questions as: "Would you object to having a qualified_____(Mexican-American, Negro, Chinese-American, etc.) as a:

fellow student	doctor or lawyer
employer or employee	policeman or fireman
teacher	neighbor

Tabulate the survey results, and correlate with the social and economic status of the people responding. Use these results to initiate class discussions on cultural differences and the causes of prejudice.

° View transparencies presentation on culture (*Cultural Differences, Culture, U.S. Citizen, American Subculture,* and *Law Enforcement Officials Represent Our Culture*).

° Investigate your own national origins to discover the reason your ancestors left their homeland.

° Discuss environment to show how it reflects culture. Look for similarities and differences (food, art, speech, religion, clothing, attitudes).

° Demonstrate through pictures from such magazines as *Ebony, Good Housekeeping,* etc., or by color skethces, how clothing reflects one's culture.

° Develop a chart showing on one side your major values,

beliefs, and attitudes. On the opposite side show how these factors affect your behavior and culture.

- List examples of nonmaterial and material components of your own culture.
- View and discuss films or phonodiscs on culture, *Culture and Crime, Time for Ideas: What Determines Taste? The Development of a Culture,* etc.
- Create a new culture. Make up your own rules, style of dress, etc.
- Debate the following statement: *Human behavior is not affected by culture.*

  Compile a list of the advantages and disadvantages of believing that your culture is the best.
- Write up a community description of a particular culture within your own community.
- Develop *critical incidents* from the area of social-service and discuss the possible reactions to these situations.
- Role-play as a social-service worker, or minority cultural member using a critical incident situation.

TEACHER MANAGEMENT ACTIVITIES

- Have the students distinguish between race and culture.
- Encourage discussion of questions such as:

  What is racial purity?
  Does cultural enrichment increase I.Q.?

- Allow students to conduct attitude surveys to explore the relationships between social-economic status and prejudicial attitudes towards certain culture.
- Give transparencies presentations on cultural factors, using such material as: *Cultural Differences, Culture, U.S. Citizen, American Subculture,* and *Law Enforcement Officials Represent Our Culture.*
- Encourage the students to discuss the concept that culture is a man-made environment.
- Show, and encourage discussion afterwards, films and phonodisc on our cross-cultural differences, for example, *Culture and Crime, Time for Ideas: What Determines Taste,* and *The Development of Culture.*

- As a writing exercise, have the students create a new culture of their own, making up customs, dress styles, etc.
- Encourage the students to participate in cross-cultural training exercises, such as: community descriptions, critical incidents, and role-playing situations from the field of public service.
- Bring in social-service workers who work with different cultural groups, and have them discuss the unique behavior patterns of these different cultural groups.

RESOURCES

Human Play and Its Cultural Expression (audio-tape, reel, purchase), McGraw-Hill, 1968.

Understanding People with Different Backgrounds (Transparency, purchase), Creative Visuals, 1969.

Culture and Crime (Movie, 16mm, rental), Indiana University A-V Center, 1970.

Intergroup Relations for the Classroom Teacher, Charlotte Epstein, Houghton Mifflin, 1968.

A Desk for Billie (Movie, 16mm, purchase), National Education Association, 1970.

Time for Ideas: What Determines Taste? (Phonodisc, purchase), Academic Recording Institute, 1969.

Time for Ideas: The Development of Culture (Phonodisc, purchase), Academic Recording Institute, 1969.

The Human Factor in Community Work, T. R. Batten, Oxford University Press, 1967.

The Achieving Society, David C. McClelland, The Free Press, 1967.

Reading Book for the Annual Laboratories in Community Leadership Training, National Training Laboratories, Institute for Applied Behavorial Sciences, NEA, 1968.

Exploring the Myths of Prejudice (Sound Filmstrip, purchase), Ethel J. Alpenfels, Warren Schloat Productions, 1972.

Cultural Differences (Transparency, purchase), Creative Visuals, 1969.

Culture U. S. Citizen (Transparency, purchase), Creative Visuals, 1968.

American Subculture (Transparency, purchase), Creative Visuals, 1969.

Law Enforcement Officials Represent Our Culture (Transparency, purchase), Creative Visuals, 1969.

Anthropology, Zdenek Salzmann, Harcourt Brace and Jovanovich, Inc., 1969.

Appendix A

RESOURCE SUPPLIERS

Appendix A

RESOURCE SUPPLIERS

This appendix is a listing of suppliers of resources itemized at the end of each unit of the individual sections.

Academic Recording Institute
4727 Oakshire
Houston, Texas 77027

Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., Inc.
Reading, Massachusetts 01867

Allyn & Bacon, Inc.
Rockleigh, New Jersey 07647

American Education Publications
Xerox Education Group
Education Center
Columbus, Ohio 43216

American Management Association
135 W. 50 Street
New York, New York 10020

Association Films, Inc.
600 Madison Avenue
New York, New York 10022

Association Press
291 Broadway
New York, New York 10007

Atherton Press
Aldine Publishing Company
529 S. Wabash Avenue
Chicago, Illinois 60605

William C. Brown Co., Publishers
135 South Locust Street
Dubuque, Iowa 52001

CENCO Educational Aids
2600 S. Kostner Avenue
Chicago, Illinois 60623

Churchill Films
6671 Sunset Blvd.
Los Angeles, California 90028

Classroom World Productions
516 West 34th Street
New York, New York 10001

Connecticut State Department
of Health
Public Health Education Section
79 Elm Street
Hartford, Connecticut 06115

Creative Visuals
Box 1911
Big Spring, Texas 79720

Daedalus Periodical
American Academy of Arts
and Sciences
7 Linden Street
Cambridge, Massachusetts 02114

Dartnell Corporation
4660 Ravenswood Avenue
Chicago, Illinois 60640

Delmar Publishers
Mountainview Avenue
Albany, New York 12205

Delta Books
Dell Publishing Company, Inc.
750 Third Avenue
New York, New York 10017

Doubleday & Company, Inc.
277 Park Avenue
New York, New York 10017

Fawcett World Library
1 Astor Plaza
New York, New York 10036

The Free Press
The Macmillan Company
866 Third Avenue
New York, New York 10026

Grove Press, Inc.
53 E. 11th Street
New York, New York 10003

Halgren Tests
873 Persimmon Avenue
Sunnyvale, California

Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc.
757 Third Avenue
New York, New York 10017

Houghton Mifflin Company
2 Park Street
Boston, Massachusetts 02107

Imperial International Learning
247 West Court Street
Kankakee, Illinois 60901

Indiana University Audio-
Visual Center
Field Services Department
Bloomington, Indiana 47401

Indiana University Press
Tenth & Morton Streets
Bloomington, Indiana 47401

Institutional Cinema Service
29 East 10th Street
New York, New York 10003

Irwin - Dorsey Press
Richard D. Irwin, Inc.
1818 Ridge Road
Homewood, Illinois 60430

Jossey-Bass, Inc., Publishers
615 Montgomery Street
San Francisco, California 94111

Lippincott, J. B., Company
E. Washington Square
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19105

The Macmillan Company
866 Third Avenue
New York, New York 10026

Charles E. Merrill Publishing
Company
1300 Alum Creek Drive
Columbus, Ohio 43216

Metromedia Analearn
235 Park Avenue South
New York, New York 10003

McGraw-Hill Book Company
330 West 42nd Street
New York, New York 10036

National Education Association
1201 16th Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20036

National Training Laboratories
Institute for Applied Behavorial
Sciences
1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20036

Oxford University Press
200 Madison Avenue
New York, New York 10016

Prentice-Hall, Inc.
70 Fifth Avenue
New York, New York 10011

Quadrangle Books, Inc.
Subsidiary, New York Times Co.
12 E. Delaware Place
Chicago, Illinois 60611

Rand McNally & Company
8255 Central Park Avenue
New York, New York 10022
or, Box 7600
Chicago, Illinois 60680

Fleming H. Revell Company
Old Tappan, New Jersey 07675

Warren Schloat Productions, Inc.
Division, Prentice-Hall Company
Pleasantville, New York 10570

Schocken Books, Inc.
67 Park Avenue
New York, New York 10016

Simon & Schuster, Inc.
630 Fifth Avenue
New York, New York 10020

Syracuse University Press
Box 8, University Station
Syracuse, New York 13210

Universal Education and Visual Arts
221 Park Avenue South
New York, New York 10003

University of Chicago Press
5801 Ellis Avenue
Chicago, Illinois 60637

University of Nebraska Press
Lincoln, Nebraska 68508

Van Nostrand Reinhold Company
450 West 33rd Street
New York, New York 10001

Western Publishing Company, Inc.
1220 Mound Avenue
Racine, Wisconsin 53404

John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
605 3rd Avenue
New York, New York 10016

H. Wilson Corporation
555 W. Taft Drive
South Holland, Illinois 60473

Project Staff

Patrick J. Weagraff, Ed. D. ..... Director
James J. Lynn, M.S. ..... Curriculum Specialist
Harold M. Blue ..... Editor
Jean Smith ..... Reproduction Typist
Miriam Dong ..... Reproduction Typist
Lillian Deger ..... Reproduction Typist
Karen Mason ..... Reproduction Typist
Mary Sullivan ..... Typist